The Field of Social Service

EDITED BY
PHILIP DAVIS

BOSTON
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THE FIELD OF SOCIAL SERVICE

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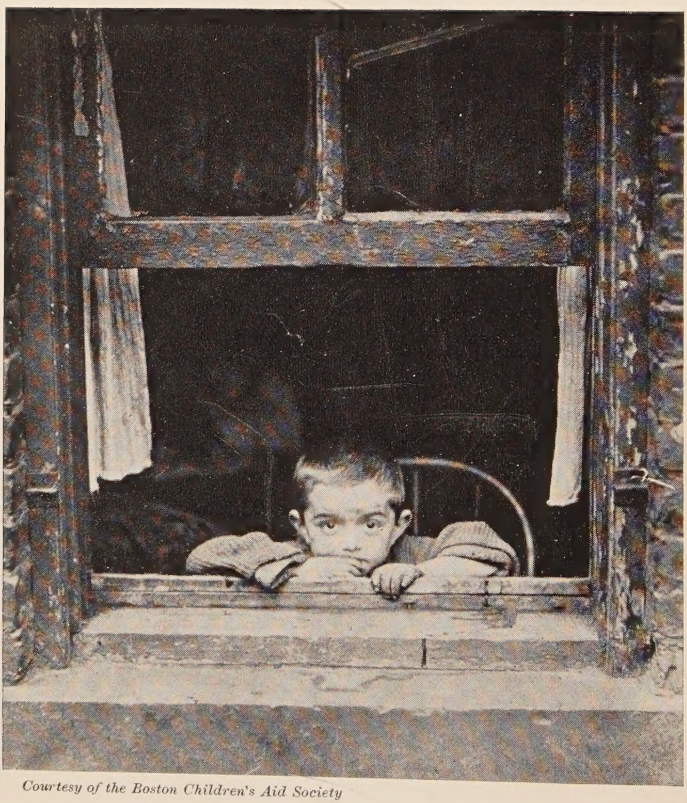

Courtesy of the Boston Children's Aid Society

Longing for a chance

THE FIELD OF SOCIAL SERVICE

EDITED BY
PHILIP DAVIS
HEAD WORKER, CIVIC SERVICE HOUSE, BOSTON

IN COLLABORATION WITH
MAIDA HERMAN

WITH ILLUSTRATIONS

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To
JANE ADDAMS

This volume is the outcome of a course in social service primarily intended for volunteer social workers and given on request. The difficulty of finding a suitable reference or text-book, presenting the whole field as covered by the course, suggested the need for this book.

THE EDITOR.

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INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

This volume is the result of a course in social service for volunteer social workers. It attempts to describe in popular form the field of social work, without undue emphasis on "charitable" work in its narrower sense and with abundant suggestions of ways in which persons of means, time and talent, resourceful organizations or the community, can have a share in the work.

The volume is intended to meet a two-fold need; first to throw some light on the larger social re-adjustments now taking place, and, secondly, to sketch the many types of social service and agencies making these adjustments possible.

The theory of social service has been voluminously treated. Here, theories are suggested only by way of example, which, to quote Gladstone, "is worth a thousand argu-

ments." Each contributor is daily engaged, and has been for years, in the practical application of certain social theories and ideals to concrete problems. Each contributor is himself blazing new paths. The names of these contributors have been prominent for years at Charity Conferences and similar public gatherings. Most of them are authors of national reputation.

Nearly every phase of social service has received some measure of attention. It was not intended to treat exhaustively the types of service covered, but it is hoped that the chapters may reënforce each other and together present a full view of present day methods and ideas of social reform.

The book is primarily intended for the beginner and volunteer.

No one has ever estimated the immense volume of volunteer social service, direct and indirect, which makes much of our present day philanthropy possible. It is not only far reaching, as a matter of fact, but one likes to

believe that it stands for the higher evolution of Comte's Religion of Humanity or Goethe's Religion of Deed. This new Religion of Service is no substitute for the older religions expressive of the more elemental human longings. But it does afford boundless opportunities for self-discovery and self-expression through service—the civilizing force of our day.

The call of the volunteer is itself religious and not to be delayed for lack of technical training, past experience or brilliancy. Honest effort, warm sympathies, human rather than military courage, and steady endeavor, will accomplish results in this calling as in all other fields of human work. Not only will rich experience result as a daily incident, but out of it will emerge a well defined and conscious need for further training in order to render a higher grade as well as a larger measure of service.

The book is divided into four parts. The two introductory chapters take up some of the great watchwords in social work. Health, Vo-

cation and Recreation are re-interpreted in terms of the social progress of our times. The second chapter presents the community idea, which must underlie all efforts for even the most intimate kind of personal salvation.

The next group of chapters, therefore, deal very naturally with what might have been called a decade ago personal shortcomings, but which to-day are very commonly regarded as real community problems, since most of the conditions which create these problems are very largely beyond the control of the individual suffering from them.

The third division deals with various aspects of child life. The treatment naturally varies with the type of service and the special expert, but the idea underlying all these chapters is that wherever conditions favor the child, the community is spared much of the cost and pain required to mend a child ill-favored by social conditions.

The final division deals especially with remedial agencies. There is much inspiration

and hope for the future in the fact that every social agency is not only thinking its way out of its immediate difficulties, but is actually devising the means. The work of every agency thus resembles the laying of a new railroad, inching its way along on the few feet of new rail. The religious sanctions for social service very properly conclude the volume.

The organization of the course itself came about as a result of a definite call; and the book is but another way of meeting, perhaps forestalling, such a demand especially in cities where there are fewer educational opportunities than in Boston. Thus the book is not an accident, nor is it a deliberate attempt to bring together different articles without provocation, if one may so put it. The entire series of lectures was first reported and edited, then submitted to the lecturers for correction and criticism, and finally recast into consecutive chapters.

The net results of the many accounts and points of view ought to be a clearer conception of social service not only as an ideal, but

also as a practical, daily incident in one's life-career. It is sincerely hoped that the book will increase the supply of volunteers. Whatever may be the shortcomings of the volunteer in matters of technique, the ideals underlying social service, the genuine impulses which first gave them birth, are often best represented in the volunteer.

The sole motive, therefore, for offering this volume is that it may help stimulate the impulse and inspiration to serve. No other motive would have justified the great draft on the time and energy of so many experts. No other reward would sufficiently compensate them for the work entailed by both the course and book. The thanks of the director, members and founders of the course, however inadequate, are nevertheless extended to all contributors. The whole enterprise, including the lectures, public conferences and visits, was a distinctly coöperative undertaking—a casting of bread upon the waters.

For the benefit of those who wish to study further any phase of the subjects, several important reference books, including those published by the contributors, are added to each chapter.

By special arrangement with the Department for Social Workers of the Intercollegiate Bureau of Occupations of New York City and the Student Department of the International Committee of Young Men's Christian Associations, the Supplement on Salaried Positions in Social Work is published in the belief that it will be of value to the reader who is interested in making social work a career.

The editor particularly desires to express his appreciation of the invaluable services rendered by Miss Maida Herman, who not only served as Recording Secretary of the course, but has ably collaborated in preparing the volume.

Finally special thanks are due Mrs. Albert W. Kaffenburgh and Mrs. A. Lincoln Filene, the principal founders and patrons of the

course, without whose zeal and devotion to community interests neither the course nor the book would have been possible.

PHILIP DAVIS.

The Civic Service House, Boston
March 1, 1915

PART I

BACKGROUND IN SOCIAL WORK

CHAPTER I

THE GREAT WATCHWORDS OF SOCIAL WORK

By Robert A. Woods

HEAD WORKER, SOUTH END HOUSE, BOSTON

THE FIELD OF SOCIAL SERVICE

CHAPTER I

THE GREAT WATCHWORDS OF SOCIAL WORK

The three great watchwords of social work are Health, Vocation, Recreation. The social worker needs to fix his attention keenly on the latest development of knowledge in these fields. They constitute the great sources of light and power among the people.

It is probable that the chief source of progress for humanity during the past three or four decades has been medical science. The average length of life has during that period been increased by perhaps as much as one-fourth. This means not merely that life is longer but deeper and broader; so that every day's existence amounts to so much more.

A very important part of this process is in the application of medical skill, including nursing, and in the dissemination of hygienic knowledge by organized and exhaustive methods among all the less resourceful classes in the community. The way in which effort, beginning in slight experiments, soon attains broad and general effect is shown in the work of medical inspection in the public schools. As the system spreads we shall have, so to speak, a great hopper through which the entire new generation shall pass, with the result of clearing them of many incipient physical handicaps which would otherwise entail vast physical and moral damage.

The best of such work cannot be done, however, by institutional methods. The health campaign must depend largely upon each individual home and it lays serious new responsibilities upon each individual mother. The mothers cannot begin to meet this challenge save by organization among themselves, under skilled and spirited leadership.

The measure of the work still to be done may be realized by considering that in spite of the progress which has been made, only half of each generation reaches the beginning of productive life at the age of sixteen or seventeen. The rest are ambushed and destroyed by the evil physical conditions which we still permit.

The second watchword is Vocation; and I refer now not so much to the profound issues with regard to the conduct of industry, as to the problem of providing boys and girls in broad and substantial fashion, with appropriate opportunities for useful and progressive careers. We need to realize what an extreme restriction of privilege the educated classes have, and what a vast re-enforcement it would be to general human well-being as well as to the economic progress of the nation, if the children of working people could be intelligently trained and launched upon the occupations which their nascent abilities should indicate. Certainly not more than fifteen per cent. of our

children receive any such education for life. Every social worker should keep before his mind the question how to give a fair start in life to at least the next fifteen per cent. Such gains as have been made in this direction have grown to a considerable extent from the pioneer efforts of agencies for social service and further progress must rely upon much the same source.

Recreation under responsible direction, which has so often been looked at as a mere meaningless alternative of evil pursuits, is today recognized as a matter of the most positive and far-reaching value to the whole rising generation. It has, of course, its preventive significance; and in this way for many city districts it is physically and morally a matter of life and death to children and young people. It is found to be the case, for instance, that the moral danger of low wages to girls is in the fact that they are thus so often left resourceless for the necessary recoil of mind and spirit after the strain of the working day.

But beyond that point of view, the whole-hearted conspiracy of enjoyment, led by those who are thought of as participants, is one of the most vital means for the exaltation and fulfillment of life. Some of the finest achievements of this sort are made by young men and women who in greater or less degree transfer the scene of their social life from the more favored to the less favored neighborhoods.

Influence through participation is the principle through which all of these fields of helpful activity are to be entered and developed. This method is not so difficult because the great body of the working people, which constitutes fifty per cent. of any city population, is actuated not so much by its ambitions or its necessities as by its loyalties. No greater patriotic service and no higher human privilege can come to the young men and women of the small fraction which makes up the professional and commercial classes, than to enter into some of the great human, hospitable loyalties which are characteristic of working people.

The question often arises whether one's effort should be with persons or with broad conditions. The answer is that the attack must be from every side. We must seek both to be friendly and to be statesmanlike. One of the best ways in which to reconcile these apparently divergent motives is to become personally involved in the actual interplay of the life of an industrial neighborhood. Here you have a community which is small enough for simple, first-hand acquaintance, yet large enough to include all the problems of the city and even of the nation. Indeed, there are few American city neighborhoods where, in essence, the great international issues are not actively present.

Suggested Reading:

Woods, Robert A. The City Wilderness. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1899.
Woods, Robert A. Young Working Girls. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1913.
Woods, Robert A. Americans in Process. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1903.

CHAPTER II

THE COMMUNITY AND THE CITIZEN

By Jeffrey R. Brackett

DIRECTOR, SCHOOL FOR SOCIAL WORKERS, BOSTON

CHAPTER II

THE COMMUNITY AND THE CITIZEN

Every one of us is a member of a community and a certain share of responsibility for a community life and action falls upon each of us. At Simmons College every year I ask my class this question:

"When did Robinson Crusoe first realize that he was a social being?"

Nine out of ten in every class say, "When he saw the footprint of the man Friday."

And I say, "Robinson Crusoe should have thought that there might be another shipwreck on the island any day. Social life should always have existed for him in expectancy. It might have begun the next morning." Our conditions are totally different from Robinson Crusoe's. Without his isolation we ought never to lose our social sense or forget our

responsibilities. Our world is built for community life.

"What is a community?" In order to get at it through the smaller unit, let us consider first, "What is a neighborhood?" "Is East Boston a neighborhood?" Some months ago there was an awakening of moral interest and of public sentiment in East Boston. The largest hall was packed with leaders and ministers of all faiths and their followers. They demanded better measures for the protection of children, especially on the streets. Here was an expression of neighborhood life and spirit which reaffirmed the vitality of the social sense. Can that sense of neighborhood life and spirit broaden out into the larger neighborhood, the community? The germ of city or state loyalty is loyalty to the best possible expression of neighborhood life.

Is there, then, such a thing as a community spirit similar to the neighborhood spirit? Certain tendencies—social, artistic, or religious mark certain communities. For instance one

ancient community of Greece was marked by a high artistic development; another was notably warlike; other communities have been marked by a strong religious sense. Boston has sometimes been spoken of as not a locality but "a state of mind." This description most justly refers to the Puritanical spirit, the New England conscience of early Boston. It ruled strongly and lent color to the whole locality.

To bound a community geographically is not easy. For example, Cambridge, a city of over one hundred thousand inhabitants, which is merely separated from Boston by a small body of water, is financially centered and has a great many interests in Boston. There is very little differentiation between the modern city proper and its immediate suburbs.

It is easier to bound a community politically. Every community, naturally, as well as politically, divides itself into sections called neighborhoods, but every neighborhood dweller should cultivate the larger sense of responsibility which his membership in the great cor-

poration called the city, demands. This growing social sense leads to more community action. It is in distinct contrast with the earlier marked individualism abroad and in the United States. Many persons then felt that the best community was the one with the least compulsion. That is true if it means much helpful voluntary action. It is especially true to-day in exactly the opposite sense of its earlier use, in that the community which requires the least compulsion is not the one which is most individualistic but most social minded, because many of its citizens are socially minded. If we, who are members of these corporations, were really so minded, really loved our neighbors as ourselves, or loved them better than ourselves, we would not need the compulsion which comes from government. That, unfortunately, is still a very Utopian idea.

The trouble is that in these corporations which we call communities, many persons are well-meaning but cannot express this well-meaningness. Many are indifferent, perhaps

because of the great enemy of mankind, selfishness. A few are distinctly vicious. The result is that very many persons do not play the game of neighborliness as they should. So the organized supervision of the community, government, and its activity, grows as men realize their interdependence. Two of the main functions of government are to prevent the ills against which individuals cannot fight singly, and to provide opportunities which they cannot get of themselves.

Some persons fear more governmental power. Others regard it as a natural expression of the developing community life; as the mark of the swinging of the pendulum away from the "let alone," individualistic doctrine of a former generation. We should not forget that this concerted action of the community through government is not the only expression of community life. We should not let the pendulum swing too far in that direction.

There are many persons who feel that somehow public officials cannot be good officials. A

public official can be as humane and considerate as a private worker. If a paid worker or a volunteer were employed by the State Board of Charity of Massachusetts to-morrow instead of by the Associated Charities, he would not be any less thoughtful in his work.

What we are going to get out of government depends chiefly on what we put into it. That is where our responsibility as members of these communities comes in. The community life as expressed through government may seem a little far off, and yet it is very near us all. Every one of us, by increasing the community spirit, can do something to help make a more wholesome community life. Our public officials will then reflect this spirit.

We must promote a sense of association, a habit of working together such as is exemplified in wholesome, democratic village improvement societies, local pageants and old home weeks. The sense of comradeship and mutual understanding will follow. That does not mean that everyone is to be intimate with

everyone else. Life is too busy and complex for that. It does mean that the members of a community shall get nearer one another with more understanding and sympathy and respect as members of a great corporation. It means that we shall often get out of the byways of our intimacies, in order to walk along the highways of neighborhood and community life, shoulder to shoulder, with mutual respect and helpfulness.

This organization of neighborhood and community life is needed in the small towns and in rural districts, as well as in the cities. An illustration of the possibilities of organization is seen in the growing interest among farmers in coöperation of production and distribution. A keen observer of country life says: "At the basis of the work of rural organization must be the neighborhood idea." The farmer should be "active in organizing the social and moral forces around his farm."

The best illustration of community life is that of a coöperative association, that is, a

"mutual benefit" association to which everyone contributes something and from which everyone draws benefits. The difference between such a coöperative association and a community, is that the former is made up of persons who know the game and wish to play it; the latter is made up of persons who find themselves members by accident of birth or circumstances. Our job all along the line is to quicken the sense of a community spirit. It is a large and glorious task, which is linked with all the best modern movements.

We in this country think we are in the front of the march of democracy. Yet we must sometimes feel that the London County Council is a more democratic body than any of our municipal corporations. Such thoughts can only rouse us. We must learn to regard our great country as the aggregate and the expression of many large and small communities, and then there falls on each one of us, the solemn and superb responsibility of developing more

true political and social democracy within the particular community in which we live.

There can be no political democracy unless we get more social democracy. The latter means more intelligent, more considerate and more effective neighborliness. It means a better understanding of people's burdens and helping them to carry these burdens.

Public service, paid or professional, largely depends on efficient volunteer neighborhood service. We expect more of the social worker than ever before. His standard of social ethics, his quality of service will help to make the spirit of the community in which he lives, realize the democratic ideal for which he stands.

PART II

COMMUNITY PROBLEMS

CHAPTER III

THE HOUSING PROBLEM

By Elmer S. Forbes

CHAIRMAN, HOUSING COMMITTEE MASSACHUSETTS CIVIC LEAGUE

CHAPTER III

THE HOUSING PROBLEM

Briefly stated, the housing problem is the question of securing in all dwellings, both new and old, a reasonable amount of light and ventilation, adequate fire protection, good sanitation, decent privacy and proper maintenance or care. In other words, it is the question of providing for all classes of the population, the essential physical requirements for a sound and healthy family life.

From another point of view, it is the problem of compelling landlords, who are indifferent to the welfare of their tenants, to build and maintain their properties so that they will be fit for habitation; and of compelling tenants, whose filthy habits and customs are a menace to the community, to respect the rights of their neighbors.

Naturally the housing problem first attracted attention in the cities, where in certain quarters, everywhere called "slums," are to be found large numbers of dwellings in which some or all the essentials for healthy living are absent. Many causes have combined to produce the slum, or rather are combining to produce it, for the process is still going on before our eyes in thousands of communities all over the United States. The most potent of these are the rapid growth of industrial towns and cities, the absence of an effective housing law, the lack of any supervision worthy of the name, and the influx of a vast horde of people whose standards of living are below the American level and who have for the most part crowded into our manufacturing centers.

As communities grow, land becomes more valuable. The old fashioned detached houses and buildings of other kinds give way to a construction considerably higher and covering a greater proportion of the lot. Since the property is rising in value, the owner feels

From Kenngott, The Record of a City

Tenements on the canal in Lowell on the edge of the Greek colony

that he must have a larger return on the actual or nominal capital invested. In the absence of any law to the contrary, this encroachment upon the yards goes on until the vacant spaces in the interior of the blocks, which are so necessary for light and ventilation, are much reduced in area and sometimes practically disappear. Thus the "Boston 1915" housing committee found that only eleven to sixteen per cent. of the houses in the typical crowded districts had back yards which satisfy the present legal minimum requirement. In the North and West Ends of Boston, more than eighty-two per cent. of the land, exclusive of streets, is covered by buildings, and dwellings cover from eighty-one to eighty-eight per cent. of their lots.

In these districts where there is such a congestion of buildings on the land, and especially when there is neither adequate law nor supervision, as has been the case until recently in most cities and towns, there will be found every form of housing abomination—dark

rooms and halls, unventilated closets used as bed rooms, damp and decaying cellars, hideous sanitary accommodations, dangerous fire risk, dirt, filth and dilapidation.

The physical disabilities of unregulated buildings are bad enough in themselves, but they are made infinitely worse by an almost incredible overcrowding for the most part by people whose standards of living are exceedingly low. Overcrowding is almost invariably a characteristic of urban slum areas. The land carries too many buildings and the tenement too many human beings.

Two districts in Boston, the same for which I have just given figures indicating the land congestion, covering an area, including streets, of about one hundred and three acres, had in 1905 a population of approximately forty-four thousand people. In other words, on a piece of land which would be thought small for a single country place we find the population of a good sized city. More than twenty thou-

sand of these people live in bed rooms with less than four hundred cubic feet of air space per capita. That is, these twenty thousand people are living below the lowest standard fixed as the minimum by any city in the United States or Europe which has undertaken to establish a minimum. The density of population in these districts, four hundred twenty-seven persons to the acre, is high for so large an area, but there are single blocks or parts of blocks in Boston and New York where the density of population will rise to eight hundred and even to twelve hundred and over to the acre.

Time will not permit any particular description of the conditions which may be found anywhere in these congested districts, nor of the swarming life which spans there without limit, but this can safely be left to the imagination, with the certainty that no unaided imagination can do full justice to the facts. Suffice it to say, that practically wherever there is conges-

tion of land and humanity, wherever there are bad living conditions, there is a housing problem, often of staggering proportions.

The effects of bad living conditions are moral, physical and social. Lack of privacy, the common use of toilets by large numbers of both sexes, the herding together of men and women, young and old, as they are herded day and night in thousands upon thousands of apartments in cities and towns the country over, inevitably must have the gravest moral consequences. A clean, sweet, pure home life is the foundation of a sound and healthy society, but under conditions like these, there can be no real home life. Instead, the slums are the breeding places of intemperance, disease, vice, degeneracy, crime and poverty. They are taxing the resources of society almost to the breaking point in the effort to care for the human wreckage which they are steadily turning out.

Miss Harriet Fulmer, Superintendent of the Visiting Nurse Association of Chicago, in a

paper a few years ago before the National Conference of Charities and Corrections, declared that "two-thirds of the delinquent children, two-thirds of the physically ill children, one-third of the mentally deficient, one-third of the shiftless mothers and two-thirds of the deserting fathers, come from homes where dirty and ill ventilated rooms predominate. To bad living quarters can easily and without exaggeration be attributed two-thirds of the necessity for much that we call 'problems' in our reform work." To say nothing about the vicious and the criminal, something must be done to stop this swelling stream of the unfit or we shall be overwhelmed by the flood.

Physical deterioration is another one of the marked results of bad living conditions. Fresh air and sunlight are essential for physical health, but there are thousands of apartments where the air is always fetid and into which the sun rarely or never shines.

One of the most striking examples of the effect of slum life upon strength and stamina

is afforded by the records of the recruiting stations for the English army in the city of Manchester during the Boer war. It is said that eleven thousand men tried to enlist and that out of this number only one thousand were accepted for active service. The rest were too much below par physically to stand the wear and tear of army life. The significant thing is that most of these men came from the congested districts of the city and the connection between cause and effect became startlingly apparent.

A high death rate from certain diseases, notably tuberculosis, is characteristic of slum life. This has been brought out by many investigations both at home and abroad. Tuberculosis, especially, is a disease of darkness, poor ventilation and overcrowding. A study of twenty-nine hundred deaths in the city of Mannheim, Germany, made a few years ago, demonstrated this very clearly. Among the families which occupied apartments of six rooms ten and three-tenths per cent. of the

total number of deaths were from tuberculosis. As the number of rooms per apartment decreased and the average number of tenants per room increased, the percentage of deaths from tuberculosis steadily rose, until among families occupying apartments of three rooms or less with more than three persons to the room, it amounted to forty-two and two-tenths per cent. of the total number of deaths. Mrs. Albion Fellows Bacon, who has so roused the State of Indiana to the dangers of bad housing, has remarked: "Every time a baby dies, the nation loses a prospective citizen, but in every slum child who lives, the nation has a probable consumptive and a possible criminal." This indicates how common this disease is where unsanitary living conditions prevail.

This does not begin to complete the tale of evils for which bad housing is responsible, but it must suffice. The Nation is paying a tremendous price for its indifference to the way in which its citizens live. A large part of the cost of our penal system and of the millions

spent in charity—an appalling slaughter of children and an enormous waste of adult life—is clearly due to indifference.

A difficult task is before us to clean up and abolish the slums we now have, to prevent their further development in the future, and to provide healthful and inexpensive dwellings which will make it easier to maintain the right kind of home life.

A beginning has been made. Some years ago the growth of the housing problem compelled the larger cities, like New York, Philadelphia, Chicago and Boston, to attempt the regulation of tenement house construction. It was a step in the right direction and a long step, but it was not always taken with due care and forethought.

In Boston, according to law, the definition of the tenement house, was any dwelling four stories or more in height and housing four families and upwards. For such dwellings the law laid down requirements covering light and ventilation, sanitation, fire protection, etc.

This was a great improvement over what had been allowed before, but unwittingly the law saddled this Commonwealth and the industrial part of New England as a whole with what is now one of the most difficult of housing problems.

Speculative builders quickly discovered that if they put up wooden buildings only three stories high and designed for only three families, they were practically free from the law's demands. As a result of this discovery, an era of kindling wood construction began, which has made the "three decker" a common type in well-nigh every manufacturing community.

This form of dwelling, according to the housing laws of every city west of the Hudson River, so far as I know them, and of every state which has a general housing law, is a tenement house. But it is highly objectionable for a number of reasons. It is usually flimsily built to sell to the unwary and rapidly deteriorates. Many a man who has bought

these flats as an investment has seen them swallow up his savings in his effort to keep them habitable. In the absence of local ordinances to the contrary, they may be built with an utter disregard of the health and safety of the occupants, and I have seen them repeatedly with only one means of exit. At the best they are dangerous fire traps. Often they are placed only six feet apart, or less, and the yard space at the rear may be scarcely more. Even when they have two staircases, the occupants of the top floors sleep there at the risk of their lives.

Furthermore, the "three decker" is terribly destructive of surrounding property values. Let one be built on a good residence street and the selling price of nearby places is automatically cut in two. You may not steal my purse out of my pocket, but you may build a house which may take the life of the tenant and certainly will rob me of half my savings which I have invested in a home. This is neither reasonable nor just.

An equally undesirable effect of this kind of dwelling is to be noted in the tenant. The higher a family lives above the ground, the less interest it takes, as a rule, in the community of which it is a part. When it has its feet on the ground, as in a one- or two-family house, it belongs and it has a personal stake in the life of the town. When it goes up into the air, it seems to lose its community interest. "Three decker" towns are conspicuously lacking in public spirit. So much for the injury which an ill-digested housing law may do.

The later codes, however, are better drawn. Massachusetts now has a tenement house act for towns, which covers the three-family flat; and one for cities, which covers the three-family flat; and another for cities, which also includes certain types of two-family houses. Undoubtedly laws will soon come which will regulate all classes of dwellings, for in all alike the health and welfare of occupants and the entire community should be carefully safeguarded.

For those who are interested in the common good, no field of effort offers larger opportunities for service than does housing reform. It is a great problem and to solve it calls for the coöperation of every public minded citizen. In attacking it we should first get the facts. Practically every community—city, town and country—has its housing question, but local pride is apt to blind us to it. Take nothing for granted but go and see what there is. As a preliminary read some of the books on the subject, like "Housing Reform," by Lawrence Veiller, which gives the view point of the city, and the Proceedings of the Conference of the National Housing Association, in which the suburban and rural aspects of the question are discussed. Endeavor to form some sort of organization to carry on this work, something which shall include all kinds of people with the social point of view, especially business men.

Having learned the facts, study the local housing laws, if there are any, and then take up the matter of law enforcement. This will

bring you into contact with the local boards of health. The plans of dwellings as they are filed should be carefully examined, to see if they conform to law. This is important, but a small number of interested people can easily do it. To follow the work of the board of health is much more important and calls for the patient, persistent, indefatigable service of a large number of both men and women. Every community should be districted, and then subdivided into small sections, each of which may be put under the charge of one or two volunteer inspectors.

These volunteers should visit the dwellings for which they are responsible at least every week, and at first probably oftener. They should report every nuisance and every violation of the health laws, and see to it that the board acts upon their reports speedily and satisfactorily. Faithful work of this kind will have great results. Nothing on earth will so keep a public board up to its duty as the knowledge that it is being followed and watched by

a group of vigilant and determined citizens. They should publish all they find without fear or favor, in the public press if they can, and in bulletins of their own if they cannot. This will shake out inefficient and venal officials and will solve important phases of the housing problem.

A stirring account of what can be done in this way has been given by Jane Addams in her story of how the Hull House Women's Club lowered the death rate in the Hull House ward in Chicago.

Should there be no adequate housing law, set about getting one, for such a law is a prime necessity. Do something for the education of tenants. The foreign housewife, ignorant of our ways of doings things, needs to be taught how to live in accordance with American standards. Here is a chance for women to render splendid volunteer service. Sanitary inspectors who have had training in household arts can also be employed, or there can be a combination of both kinds of service.

From Aronovici, Housing Conditions in Fall River

A dark bedroom

From Aronovici, Housing Conditions in Fall River

A bedroom whose only window opens against an adjoining wall

These most obvious forms of service are necessary because the task is utterly beyond our undermanned town and city boards with their pitifully inadequate appropriations.

These are the steps in volunteer service which should first be taken. They will call for great determination and persistence and when they have been achieved, other phases of the problem will be ready for attack.

Suggested Reading:

Report of the Housing Committee of "Boston 1915."
Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections for 1908.
De Forest, Robert W., and Veiller, Lawrence. The Tenement House Problem. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1903.
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"Property of the Library of the Museum of Comparative Zoology"

CHAPTER IV

FIRE PREVENTION

By Charles H. Cole

ADJUTANT-GENERAL, MASSACHUSETTS VOLUNTEER MILITIA

CHAPTER IV

FIRE PREVENTION

The problem of fire control is intimately connected with the safety and welfare of the human race. The number of lives which have been sacrificed through fire reaches into the thousands, and the number of injured into the tens of thousands. In 1910 over fifteen hundred lives were lost by fire, and fifty-six hundred persons were injured. It seems unbelievable that these frightful losses are allowed to occur when it is known that from fifty per cent. to seventy-five per cent. of all fires are preventable. The lack of proper protection is nothing short of criminal carelessness on the part of our law makers.

The fire losses in the U. S. A. have amounted to fourteen billions of dollars in less than fifty years. This vast sum repre-

sents an amount twice as great as the real estate valuation of the City of Greater New York; fourteen times as much as our national debt, and thirty-five times as much as the cost of the recent Balkan War to all the nations concerned. Our fire loss is from six to nine times as great as that of any country in Europe.

Yet with present laws and regulations strictly enforced and improved, where necessary, this waste could be cut down one half. Here is a big field for constructive statesmanship and preventive social work. The increased safety of buildings would automatically reduce the insurance rates. Such a reduction would benefit every man, woman and child in this country, because, contrary to the popular belief that the insurance companies pay the fire losses, every citizen who pays his rent or carries any insurance, bears his share of these losses. This fire tax is none the less burdensome because it is indirect. Moreover we do not only

A street of "three-deckers"

pay the fire losses of our own community, but also those of every other. For example, Massachusetts is to-day paying a greater insurance rate because of the San Francisco fire in 1906.

With a reduction in fire losses, the cost of our Fire Departments would be greatly reduced. This would necessarily result in a reduction of the taxes which we pay to the city and state.

The reduction of fire hazards indirectly involves the health, sanitation, comfort and safety of our citizens. Combustible rubbish is not only dangerous from the point of view of fire, but in nearly every case it is injurious to health. Limiting the number of people employed or living in buildings means better health, increased comfort as well as safety in getting out of the buildings in case of fire.

The loss of life from fire has principally been from factories, hotels, apartment houses of second-class construction and lodging houses.

The cheap lodging house may be considered a typical case of the worst fire risk. There are nearly two thousand men lodged every night in the fifteen cent, twenty cent and twenty-five cent lodging houses of Boston. The houses each have a capacity of from seventy to two hundred seventy-five. Generally only the upper stories of the building are occupied by the lodgers, the basements and the ground floors being let for mercantile purposes. The second floor usually contains the office and lounging room, and in some cases sleeping rooms which are even smaller than the state-rooms on ocean liners. The upper floors contain either similar rooms known as cubicles or open dormitories.

The cubicles are constructed by dividing the main room into little rooms with wooden partitions about six feet in height. Almost all the available space is taken up, leaving barely enough for a narrow passageway between the different groups of rooms. Some of these passageways are not wide enough to allow the

opening of opposite doors at the same time. In these cubicles is a metal bed with metal springs, a mattress generally made of excelsior, sheets, pillowcases, blankets, and a small locker in which the lodger locks his clothes when he retires. The door to the room is generally locked. The lockers are small as the lodgers are not expected to have any baggage other than what they wear.

In the dormitory the beds are arranged in rows of double tiers, one above the other, with a narrow passageway between each tier and a narrow aisle between each row. Each man has a locker near the head of his bed. Four hundred cubic feet of air space, the minimum fixed by the Board of Health, is allowed to each lodger.

Such lodging houses have for many years been inspected by four different departments. The Police Department, who licenses them, inspects them to see that they live up to the rules and regulations as laid down by the Police Commissioner; the Board of Health inspects

conditions of heating and lighting, the number of people housed and certain sanitary conditions; the Building Department examines the means of egress and the fire extinguishing appliances; and the Fire Department, the removal of combustible rubbish. As long as there are four departments partially in control and no one with sufficient authority to carry out all the laws, the responsibility can never be properly placed. Yet this division of authority exists in many other states.

As an example of the inadequacy of such inspection consider the fire in the Arcadia lodging house in Boston. The fire started in a closet which was locked as usual and was full of rubbish. It spread rapidly to the stairs just above the closet and in a short time the flimsy structure was aflame. In the first place, there were not enough fire escapes. Doors which should have been open were locked. There were no automatic sprinklers. Men crowded the windows in vain efforts to push their way to the fire escapes and safety. In less time

than it takes to write it down, the mattresses were aflame and before the fire was under control twenty-four people were burned or smothered to death.

Every fire, except an explosion, is of the same size when it starts. A cup of water will put it out.

There must be laws which will provide for protection against such fires and such laws must be put into effect by an efficient executive force.

The first definite move in this direction in Massachusetts has been made by the presentation to the legislation of a model fire prevention law.

This Act provides that all existing powers be transferred to and vested in a Fire Prevention Commissioner.

In addition to these powers, the commissioner has the power to make orders and rules relating to fires, fire protection and fire hazard binding throughout the metropolitan district. Such rules may require the establish-

ment of automatic sprinklers, fire resisting partitions with fire doors to separate stairways, isolated elevator shafts, metal framed windows, automatic alarms, adequate fire escapes, etc.

Very few states have such model laws. The reason is that we place property rights above human rights. The duty of the social worker, paid or volunteer, is to urge upon the public as a whole the necessity of advocating such changes; and upon each member of the community his individual duty and responsibility.

Suggested Reading:

Kenlon, John. Fires and Fire Fighters. New York: George H. Doran Company, 1913.

Note—For unusual opportunities for emergency relief and rehabilitation work after fire see, "Emergency Relief after Washington Place Fire," and other valuable publications of American National Red Cross Society, Washington, D. C.—Editor.

CHAPTER V

HEALTH AND MEDICAL SOCIAL SERVICE

By Dr. Richard C. Cabot

CHAPTER V

HEALTH AND MEDICAL SOCIAL SERVICE

The ideal volunteer social worker in any field is the person who is sufficiently interested to put in both time and money. I advise no one of means to put in a great deal of money unless he can also give some time to the work. Otherwise one is never sure how wisely the money is used. This is the best way of securing first hand information in any particular field. Wherever I can influence a high type of woman, I try to get her into social work for the sake of the woman as well as the work. There is nothing which gives a woman more satisfaction than social work.

I want to commend especially the field of volunteer medical social service. Why has sickness and disease any particular need of the medically trained social worker? Why is not

the work fully done by the doctors and nurses? Because we are dealing with human beings who do not cease to be human, while sick. Yet not every sick person needs social help. If a man has malaria, he can be given quinine. There is no need for a social worker. But the class of illness represented by quick cures constitutes not more than two-fifths of the cases of illness as they present themselves at any free public hospital. That is, of all the cases, only about two-fifths can be helped sufficiently by the doctor alone.

A human being has a physical background but he has also a psychical background. He has habits which the doctor cannot correct, but which must be changed if he is to be cured. Someone else must do this. The whole field of the economics of illness is out of the hands of the doctor and the nurse. They can do nothing about it. The doctor may know that the patient's troubles, worries and fears are such as to make it impossible for him to recover physically. He may know that the

Courtesy of Instructive District Nursing Association

Father and mother and seven children live in two rooms. Mother and all the children have tuberculosis. Baby sleeps in an improvised bed made of a quilt

moral situation, some crime or some error committed in the past, has so changed the situation that there must be moral relief before there can be physical. But he has no time to look into all these attendant causes of illness. Habits, economic and moral conditions cause the illness of nearly two-thirds of the patients who are subjects of charity at our hospitals. This is as true of the well-to-do patients as it is of the poor. I often regret that they, too, cannot have the assistance of a social worker. The need is as deep as humanity and as broad.

I shall treat of some of the groups of diseases in which social workers are necessary,—the diseases of infants, tuberculosis, industrial diseases and the industrially handicapped, neurasthenia, and diseases associated with sexual immorality.

First the problem of the diseases of infants which are beyond the doctor and the nurse. The care of a baby led me to organize social service at the Massachusetts General Hospital.

The baby was ten months old and was suffering with stomach trouble. We took it into the hospital and in about five weeks we returned it, cured. We had in the meantime expended about thirty dollars. When we returned the baby it was without any instructions to anybody. This is the weakest point with most hospitals, that they do not make sufficient connection between the patients in the institution and their lives before and after. All our hospitals write on the patient's history when he leaves: "discharged-cured," "discharged-relieved," "discharged-dead," and there the function of the doctor is ended.

The hospital ought to see that someone else provides "after-care." This baby was "discharged-cured" into the arms of a generous, wholesouled mother who wanted to give her children the best of everything. So the child got a hair-raising assortment of food, and in a few weeks turned up at the hospital precisely as sick as before. Again thirty dollars' worth of care was spent. Again the baby

was turned over "cured" to its uninstructed mother, and again the trouble occurred. It promised to be a case of perpetual motion. Baby goes out, baby gets sick, baby comes back, baby goes out and so on forever.

This happened in 1905, but it is a true sample of similar cases which constantly occur, because of lack of social service and in this instance, lack of instruction. If the mother had been given instructions about the baby's proper diet, the baby would not have been returned to us. We found that the mother wanted to do what was right but that no one had told her what she needed to know. She had supposed that by nature she would know how to take care of the baby. The results were as described. It did not take much time or any money, except a few dollars' salary to a paid social worker, to do what the hospital had hitherto failed to do. Clearly then, without great expert knowledge, that mother might have been properly guided. The vast majority of the illnesses which babies have are not to

be cured by medicine. Medicines do not often suit babies.

Out of one hundred and fifty to one hundred and sixty diseases, there are only seven or eight which can be cured by a drug. How then can they be cured? Only by hygiene, by a better knowledge of how to live. But hygiene is not a science which can be put on like a ready made suit; it must be fitted to the particular person. There are individual laws of hygiene for each of us, and each breaks them at his peril.

We next come to consider tuberculosis. Five years ago I was at Trimley, just outside of London, at a small hospital for tuberculosis presided over by Dr. Patterson. The hospital had one hundred and fifty beds and the patients were selected from the Brompton Tuberculosis Hospital in London. This was a huge affair. I believe it had thirty-five hundred beds.

I said to Dr. Patterson, "I suppose you take the early cases."

"No," he said, "not always; I sometimes take cases a good deal more advanced."

"What basis of selection have you?" I asked.

"Well," he said, "I never try to cure a fool."

At the time that remark seemed cruel. I often feel like a fool. I felt it was hard on humanity. But later I saw that he was right. He had a limited amount of space, money and time and he had to take the people who would make the most of their chances. He knew that character made as much difference in the cure of tuberculosis as any single thing. Take two tuberculous patients, equally diseased, one with a strong will, and one with a will like macaroni. The former will come out ahead at the end of two years. The latter probably goes under.

Discouragement has much to do with this. Therefore, understanding, sympathy and help make a lot of difference in recovery. One must know the individual intimately to help him. Personal help will cure a much larger portion of cases than physical remedies without such help. The physical remedies must be

given, but despite them I have seen people go down because of discouragement, anger, worry and fear.

The social worker sees to it that the people know what they ought to know, do at least part of what they ought to do, and tries to help nourish in them the courage to do it. He often fails. It is hard to help people in their life-long fight with this disease.

A good many cases of disease are due mostly to working conditions. Lead poisoning has caused one hundred and thirty-seven illnesses in the last four years in the Massachusetts General Hospital. Those cases have been treated medically. But one case of lead poisoning always means many more. It is a disease acquired in a shop or maybe through drinking water. Every case should be looked upon as a sign of like cases in the community. Character comes in here, too. In some dusty industries we have laws which compel the manufacturer to provide respirators. The manufacturer provides them. What happens?

Courtesy of Instructive District Nursing Association

The father of these six children earns $7.50 a week. They have three attic rooms and take four boarders. Mother and children have tuberculosis, and nurse gives daily instruction to prevent its spread

Often the workman does not wear the mask. Dr. Linenthal, Health Inspector of the Massachusetts State Board of Health, tells me that he inspects shops where respirators should be used and finds them hanging on the wall.

Ask a workman why they are not used, and he will answer, "Too much trouble."

"But," you say, "you are endangering your life."

"Well," he answers, "perhaps I am."

He does not *care* enough about his life to use these protectors. If a social worker could become his friend and make him understand through this friendship the value of his life, he might see it differently. For if we think we have no friends, life seems useless. I have seen people who were unwilling to protect themselves until they thought someone else cared. Hence, there is a need of making people take enough interest in themselves to do what they ought to do.

Let us consider the industrially handicapped. At the Massachusetts General Hospital, we

have begun to work with this group of people during the last eighteen months and find it a very difficult job. This work was attempted in New York six years ago. Three years ago it was so dead that I could hardly find its grave. And yet this work can be done and is being done. Our social worker in that field is paid twelve hundred dollars a year. In 1913, the wages of people out of work for whom she got work, aggregated sixty-five hundred dollars a year. That is six hundred per cent. profit on the investment. This is a personal job. It is much easier to find a job for the handicapped worker than to keep him in it. If he gets discouraged or loses his place, one must not only help him to find employment, but must give friendly sympathy and encouragement till he gets really settled.

Many people assume that functional nervous disease is a special luxury enjoyed by the rich. Those who live among the poor know that it is just as common with them. It is even worse, because often the poor do not ap-

preciate that a person can have a disease which does not show. Mental suffering is the worst of all suffering, much worse than physical suffering. It always deserves to be treated both firmly and sympathetically. One can get too much sympathy but one deserves some. A nervous man is looked upon as a perfectly healthy being. There is no harder fight than to be suffering and to get reviling. Our clinics do not begin to give nervous patients the kind of attention which they ought to have. Intimate knowledge of the case is necessary.

The first thing such a patient needs is a chance to tell his story. That usually takes one hour or more. He has a right to that. We, at the hospital, can tell by the weight of a letter whether it is from a nervous patient. If you understand him, you can help a great deal, even more than in the organic diseases which a surgeon treats. The average physician likes to prescribe a drug, but these nervous people cannot be cured with drugs. There must be a "re-education" in self control, a

control of thoughts, of emotions, of appetite and of sleep, which many people have never learned, but which can be learnt. Unfortunately there are not workers enough in this country to help all the sufferers of this sort.

Every year the Massachusetts General Hospital gets, on the average, more than a score facing motherhood without husbands. The custom of the average hospital is to treat them from the purely medical point of view, and let them go. This is inhuman. These girls are not degraded. But they will become so unless someone steps in. Someone must persuade them not to resort to an abortion in order to kill their unborn child. They need steady, solid friendship, someone to encourage them to bear their child, to nurse their child, to work for it and later perhaps to marry its father, or another man who knows the full story. I am speaking from a personal knowledge of such girls. We have helped many. If their letters could be read, all would be eager to do their share.

The opportunities for paid and volunteer workers in this entire field are very great. Trained workers almost always start as volunteers. What we need is that combination of enthusiasm and training, of sense and sentiment, and of heart and head which makes the ideal volunteer worker.

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CHAPTER VI

PLAYGROUNDS

By Joseph Lee

PRESIDENT, NATIONAL PLAYGROUND AND RECREATION ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

CHAPTER VI

PLAYGROUNDS

From the point of view of a "promoter" I want to urge at the very outset the necessity of supervising playgrounds. A playground is not of much use unless looked after. In fact one of the first playgrounds in Philadelphia was abandoned for lack of supervision. Supervision is especially urgent in large cities. It is true that sometime we may get around to the little corners where we will have benches for the mothers and little neighborhood playgrounds which will be able to run themselves, but at the present time supervision is pretty nearly the whole thing.

This playground business is not merely a question of running the playground itself nor of what actually happens on that one or two acres. It must be a training school, a means

of reaching the neighborhood. What a playground does should be judged by what happens outside of the playground. When it is what it ought to be, you will see what it does by watching the children on the streets.

A very important part of the work is to teach games—not a hundred games, but a few that all will play. When hand ball was started on a Boston playground, children began playing it against all the blank walls. We must popularize a few games besides baseball and football—such as soccer, shinny, hockey, prisoner's base, and basket ball. Shinny is a great game for girls. So is prisoner's base. Teaching games and getting them planted is one of the ways in which a playground can serve its neighborhood. Most of the children are off the playground and on the streets and sidewalks. We shall never have room for all of them on the playground.

A playground is an easy institution to kill. If the children come and find the teacher is not there it will queer it terribly. It is a plant

Wanted — a playground

which must be nurtured very carefully. Therefore the first qualification of a teacher is punctuality. Be there on time every day and all the year round.

What are some other qualifications? The playground teacher must be social. Athletic training is not so important. Gymnastic ability is very unimportant. A good social worker and a good social mixer is the best type of playground teacher.

Some of the best social workers have discovered that play is the best way to get at the neighborhood. Play is a means of reaching the hearts of the people. In other words the playground should be part of a social center. The new school will have a basement for play, an outdoor playground for hockey and other games and will be a true social center all the year round.

The playground is best justified when it serves the neighborhood. I never understood just what a neighborhood was until I discussed the matter with one of the best social workers

I know, Robert A. Woods. Human beings are by nature neighborhood dwellers. You can evolve the home from the construction of the human heart, from the spiritual nature of man. The neighborhood is a larger home. It is not healthy for a man not to have a neighborhood feeling. The neighborhood is one of the circles in which he exists, and the revival of the neighborhood is one of our problems. The playground teacher, like the social worker, is the apostle of the neighborhood and must therefore have some special social training.

He must also have an educational point of view—a psychological understanding of what movements people, and especially children, make when you press different buttons. You must understand what they are feeling inside. The playground develops the soul; the arms and legs are merely avenues to this development. Do not value activities according to some outside mark, but as an expression of the child. We want a law of freedom. For example, some people would settle a dispute for

boys. That is bad. Let the boys settle it for themselves. They are evolving a social order of their own. Let them try it out for themselves and find what happens. In some games of weak vitality it is true that the teacher must interfere; but in games like baseball let the children alone. So of the playground as a whole, do not be the policeman but delegate duties to the children. For instance, let the big girls look after the swings.

If there are no games being played, something is wrong. The children must be playing games and the teacher must not be looking at them. They must be playing alone. The number of places a teacher can be where she is not, is the test of her ability. Moreover no child must be listless. Each should be doing something. Herein lies one of the uses of apparatus on a playground. It gives the shy child, who does not belong to any particular gang, something which he can do.

The nature of the child must be considered. In the first place the play of the child is serious.

It is the most serious thing he does. He gives his mind to it more fully than to anything else. Watch any child digging in the sand and making sand cakes, a little girl playing with her doll, or a boy building a house of blocks, you will see that the boy is not building the house but the house the boy. Something comes out of the boy that was not there before: it is a new adventure into the world of the real.

Mothers sometimes say to their boys who would almost give their lives to win the game, "Aren't you afraid you will get heated?" Women cannot always appreciate the boy's point of view. They do not understand the importance of the game to him. Baseball or football in its season is the thing the boy does hardest. He lies awake nights, thinking, not about his lessons but whether he can get on the team.

We are all familiar with the theory of the German, Herr Groos, that play is growth. It is a sound theory. That is why the child makes play his first concern, and why we

Courtesy of Narragansett Machine Company

A city playground

should adopt his view if we want the child to grow up.

Suggested Reading:

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Groos, Karl. The Play of Man. New York: D. Appleton & Company, 1901.

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CHAPTER VII

RECREATION

By Ernst Hermann

SUPERINTENDENT OF PLAYGROUNDS, NEWTON, MASSACHUSETTS

CHAPTER VII

RECREATION

Effective recreation for the adult means a change of occupation. Men and women living in cities and engaged in modern industry need this kind of recreation to rejuvenate mind, body and soul. They need active rather than passive forms of recreation. They require a change that will give the whole body a chance to re-create its functional efficiency.

Recreation does not necessarily mean playing games. To be sure, playing any game whole heartedly and enthusiastically is recreation. Such play exercises the body and occupies the mind in new ways. It strengthens character by the practice of rules and the overcoming of obstacles. No man can cheat himself. Loafing, mental or physical, is not recreation. It is a form of self-deceit.

Only feeble-minded children play without an object. The senseless, noisy, "rough house" of youngsters just dismissed from the school rooms is a sign of super-strain upon the whole physical mechanism. It is the blowing off of their safety valve. This form of rough-house would not be necessary if the children had not been unduly restrained. It is a warning that recreation is badly needed. It is an hysterical reaction on restraint. If not controlled, it results in exhaustion. It is a terrible indictment against our school methods. We see the same thing in the overworked man who takes to drink and other excesses as a relief.

Man is nine-tenths physical. Man is what he does. The human hand made the human brain. The motor brain is basic. Circulation of blood and lymph, respiration, ventilation of the body, the whole physiological system, the brain, and even the character depend upon wholesome and general physical action

for their proper functioning and continued efficiency. The muscular system of the human body is the mainspring of human health, happiness, hope and home.

To maintain the efficiency of the muscular system under modern conditions of living and working is very difficult. Plays and games are therefore necessary correctives. Furthermore, we must educate the people to appreciate these needs and develop early habits of safe and sane recreation among our children.

Why is this so imperative? It is because man's occupations are not now what they used to be; they are not now of such a nature that racial progress, physical as well as intellectual, can be maintained. Man's occupations now engage a very few muscles. They overexercise the nerves and the emotions. They never exercise the heart and the lungs.

Study the various occupations in factories and shops. Study the life of millions of women at sewing machines and in offices.

Most of our people spend their early years at sedentary school work, and the rest of their lives at sedentary employment.

Fashions have greatly influenced the free and spontaneous exercise of the body. Even the feet of little children are now hampered by high shoes and stiff soles. It has become unfashionable to perspire. The child is dressed like a doll and lives the first years in perambulators and high-chairs. Backyards and rear porches are the training ground for young America. The streets, the children's playground, are now unsafe. The little tots have lost Mother Earth. They can only dig in artificial sand boxes. Everywhere, pavement, asphalt and stone, are in their way. The old fashioned backyard does not exist any more. The sheds, the trees, the fences, the walls, the gardens, the animals, exist only in picture books. Father who formerly worked at home now does his work in a factory. Formerly, the whole family did things in the home. These house chores were good recreation for

father and son alike. Everybody had garden tools and almost everybody had carpenter tools.

Think of the rich sense-impressions the children of former days got from these chores, and the opportunities for muscular reactions on them. Sense stimulations without motor reactions have no real educational value for children.

More schooling is said to be necessary because our economic conditions demand more knowledge. If our young children had more motor training they would learn much quicker. They would be healthier, too. If our children had better opportunities for wholesome motor life at home they would not need to go to school until they were nine or ten years old.

The lack of wholesome physical play of hand and feet, of body and mind, makes for an undersized and feeble race. The lack of all-round physical occupations for our men and women condemns many thousands of our people to early breakdown. If this continues, we

shall not recognize in the men of to-morrow the children of to-day.

We must educate all our people to an understanding of the true meaning of physical health, and the bearing of wholesome recreation upon psycho-physical happiness.

Suggested Reading:

Addams, Jane. The Spirit of Youth and the City Streets. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1909.

Note—For opportunities open to workers in the field of recreation and play, see "Public Recreation" by Lee F. Hanmer.—Editor.

CHAPTER VIII

THE NEW IMMIGRATION: A PROBLEM IN EDUCATION

By Frank E. Spaulding

SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, MINNEAPOLIS
MEMBER OF IMMIGRATION COMMISSION OF MASSACHUSETTS, 1913

CHAPTER VIII

THE NEW IMMIGRATION: A PROBLEM IN EDUCATION

From the days of the *Mayflower,* to the middle of the last century, Great Britain and the Northern European countries furnished almost all the immigrants to America. Hence, the descendants of the earlier immigrants and the latest arrivals found themselves of the same racial stock, though not always speaking the same language.

Consequently the Americanization and absorption of the stream of immigrants flowing into this country during the two and one half centuries of its early history was achieved with no great difficulty. The principal means of the achievement were association in commerce and industry and in civic and social affairs,

and the education of the young in the public schools.

But the immigration of the last half century, especially the last quarter century, is bringing different and far more difficult and complex problems. These new immigrants are recruited from many races and speak many different languages. They hail not from northern but from southern and eastern Europe—Russia, Austria, Italy, Turkey, Greece. They differ not only from our native stock, but from our gradually diminishing British and Northern European immigrants of to-day.

I began to realize how distinct and alien they are as I stood by the gates of a large New England cotton factory: strange peoples from strange lands rushed by, hundreds, thousands of them filling the air with a babel of tongues. I did not hear a word of English.

How distinct and alien they must be one realizes by contrasting the history of their races, their home governments, the civic, social, industrial, and religious ideals and practices

they and their ancestors have lived under for generations, with the races, governments, ideals, and practices of native Americans and British and Northern European immigrants.

The present immigrant problem may now be stated in the form of a question: How can we, descendants of immigrants of past generations, learn to live and work and govern ourselves to our own advantage as well as to that of these newcomers from all the nations of the world?

In pointing out the difficulties of the problem, I would not imply any lack of appreciation of their assets: physical strength, general intelligence, industry and perseverance, ambition and hope. The problem is how to develop and realize these assets to the advantage both of the state and the immigrants. How can this be done? What is being done? What are the chief obstacles?

One common desire brings them here: Work. What kind of work can they get? Only manual or unskilled labor. They there-

fore go, for the most part, into the manufacturing industries, or join construction gangs working on our roads, streets, sewers and subways. Even the comparatively small number who come here with some education and the knowledge of a trade, are seldom able to do better at first. They thus start at the lowest industrial level and lowest wage; at jobs long since abandoned by our natives and later even by the English and Irish immigrant.

Beginning "at the bottom" is not necessarily a misfortune. In all successful careers it is the traditional first-step. What is the next step for the non-English-speaking immigrant? Who is interested to point it out to him, to help him to make it?

Just as the immigrant's first dominant interest is to get a job, so our one dominant interest is to secure his labor at the lowest wage. It is an impersonal interest, usually that of a corporation.

The unparalleled expansion of our industries in the last fifteen years has kept pace with

the invasion of these latest immigrant hordes. Our newest industries and our latest immigrants are well mated. Our industries are so specialized that little or no skill and but slight intelligence are required of the great mass of operatives. These industries offer the jobs that our latest immigrants can quickly learn to perform and they offer comparatively little else. The overwhelming demand of our industries is for the lowest grade of service. To secure such service they pay only what they have to pay. Within such industries no way opens upward for the great mass of the employees, who must begin and remain "at the bottom." The industry that employs and is comparatively satisfied with the cheapest grade of labor offers little inducement to its employees to improve their capacity.

The superintendent of one of the largest and most prosperous cotton factories in New England expressed this situation tersely and with brutal frankness. When asked what advantage, in terms of increased pay, an elementary

education, including a knowledge of the English language, would be to his polyglot employees, he replied: "None. We don't hire 'em on language; we hire 'em on muscle, on what they can do."

In such a factory there is little hope of Americanization for the immigrant as an incident of his work. There he is destined to remain alien in thought, language, habit, and ideals.

What are outside influences and agencies doing to enlighten and Americanize these people? On the whole, little. Indeed, the chief institutions and conditions of living to which these people are subject are tending to keep them alien. This sounds like a pessimistic judgment; but here are the facts:

People learn much by mingling together. Our non-English-speaking foreigners tend to live by themselves, each race and nationality by itself. The great mass of our foreign population is concentrated within the larger centers of population. As a rule these people live

in separate sections. So we have our Italian, Polish and Greek sections. In each section the shops, stores, clubs, churches are foreign. Their nearest neighbors are also foreign. What chance then have American ideas and influences to penetrate these compact, self-contained groups, transported bodily, as it were, from a foreign world?

All the principal influences within and without the lives of these immigrants tend to bring and to keep them together. They are human; they are social beings. They are in a strange land; they are conscious of their dependence on those they know and understand, who also understand them. The segregation is therefore wholly natural, almost inevitable. Suppose a few Greeks enter a mill town; they are practically forced to keep together. They hire lodgings in common. Other Greeks come, attracted by the jobs secured by their pioneer countrymen. Of course they seek out their countrymen and often share their lodgings. One opens a bakery, another a grocery. A

church or chapel is built. Perhaps a school is opened. A priest, a doctor and a mid-wife come to dwell in the little colony.

These social advantages naturally attract all newcomers of the same race. To settle anywhere but in the colony means the denial of all these necessities, conveniences and pleasures of life, and is not for a moment to be seriously considered.

The typical situation of the non-English-speaking immigrant in this country is eloquently expressed in a letter addressed to the recent Massachusetts Commission of Immigration:

"I'm in this country four months (from 14 Mai 1913—Noniton—Antverpen).

"I am polish man. I want be american citizen—and took here first paper in 12 June N 625. But my friends are polish people—I must live with them—I work in the shoes-shop with polish people—I stay all the time with them—at home—in the shop—anywhere.

"I want live with american people, but I do not know anybody of american. I go 4 time to teacher and must pay $2 weekly. I wanted take board in english house, but I could not, for I earn only $5 or 6 in a week, and when I pay $2, I have only $4—$3—and now english board house is too dear for me. Better job to get is very hard for me, because I do not speak well english and I cannot understand what they say to me. The teacher teach me—but when I come home—I must speak polish and in the shop also. In this way I can live in your country many years—like my friends—and never speak—write well english—and never be good american citizen. I know here many persons, they live here 10 or more years, and they are not citizens, they don't speak well english, they don't know geography and history of this country, and they don't know constitution of America—nothing. I don't like be like them I wanted they help me in english—they could not—because they knew nothing. I want go from them away. But where?

Not in the country, because I want go in the city, free evening schools and lern. I'm looking for help. If somebody could give me another job between american people, help me live with them and lern english—and could tell me the best way how I can fast lern—it would be very, very good for me. Perhaps you have somebody, here he could help me?

"If you can help me, I please you.

"I wrote this letter by myself and I know no good—but I hope you will understand what I mean.

"Excuse me,

"F. N."

This segregation is even greater in the small industrial centers. The physical, industrial and social isolation in which the foreigner lives leaves both the American and foreigner in utter ignorance of each other's history, traditions, ambitions and true character. How dense and dangerous this mutual ignorance may be has been revealed repeatedly in recent strikes of foreigners.

If we Americans will take no trouble to understand them as human beings and to make them understand and appreciate our institutions, we may expect them in their ignorance and excitement to precipitate similar strikes in the future.

We must not forget the paramount interest of the state. Our industrial expansion and prosperity, especially of the last fifteen years, has been achieved in many places at the expense of the state. It has brought an enormous civic burden. Industry itself, absorbed in its own immediate prosperity and dividends, is doing little to bear the burden it imposes. Prohibiting, or directly restricting immigration, is a function of the federal government, not of the state. But every state has the right and the duty to determine the conditions under which all people, immigrant or native-born, may live and work, the conditions under which industries may be carried on within her borders.

There are several phases of this immigrant

burden, matters of housing and sanitation, exploitation of various kinds, distribution, criminal and civil court proceedings, that demand immediate attention. But by far the most important phase is the educational. The immigrant must be educated; this the Massachusetts Commission of Immigration found to be the universal and most emphatic judgment of all kinds and classes of people throughout the commonwealth, who expressed themselves in any way on the subject—employers, laborers, social workers, state and city officials, judges, physicians, clergymen, police, health boards and the immigrants themselves. All agreed that next to the job which the immigrant must have for his support, he needs at least a "working knowledge" of the English language.

In matters of education we naturally and rightly turn to the public schools. We are accustomed to rely on the public school to care for the elementary educational needs of the public. Most of us therefore assume that the necessary education of our immigrants is be-

ing supplied by the public schools, day and evening. This assumption is unwarranted even in Massachusetts.

Public evening schools, on which we are wont to rely for the education of all adult illiterates, are doing a great work, but as organized and conducted at present are wholly inadequate. In the first place, such schools are maintained in but comparatively few cities or towns. The sessions of these schools are entirely too short—only two to four evenings a week for a period of eight, twelve, perhaps twenty weeks. Expressed in terms of day-school time, evening school sessions for a year amount to three to six, and in exceptional cases, eight weeks.

Evening school teachers, as a whole, are poorly prepared for their work. Most of them have no special training. The best of them are usually employed in the day schools which rightly claim their best energies. Many of them would not be considered fit for day school positions. They take up teaching temporarily,

not as a profession but for remuneration. Nor is this all; in most places classes are usually from two to three times too large. When first organized, the classes are over-crowded. Gradually their numbers fall away as the pupils discover how little they are learning.

Another serious drawback to evening instruction is the mental condition of the pupils, especially the younger ones. After a full day's work and a hearty evening meal they are in poor condition to use their minds vigorously. It is no uncommon thing for them to fall asleep. Many of them have never been to school in their own countries; few of them have ever learned to apply themselves to mental tasks. Hence, with comparatively rare exceptions, the progress that they make in acquiring the English language and a knowledge of American ideas is slow.

Here then is a problem in education, unparalleled in the history of our country or any other, calling for the highest degree of statesmanship and service.

Suggested Reading:

Jenks, Jeremiah W., and Lauck, W. Jett. The Immigration Problem. New York and London: Funk & Wagnalls Company, 1912.

Report of Immigration Commission of Massachusetts, 1913.

CHAPTER IX

THE NEW IMMIGRATION: A PROGRAMME

By George W. Tupper

IMMIGRATION SECRETARY, Y. M. C. A., MASSACHUSETTS AND RHODE ISLAND

CHAPTER IX

THE NEW IMMIGRATION: A PROGRAMME

Social workers whose lot is cast in communities where foreign-born neighbors predominate have an opportunity to work out unique preventive measures and thereby contribute materially toward a constructive domestic immigration policy and programme.

The non-English speaking people need a helping hand most when they first land. Federal protection ceases as soon as they leave the port of entry. Bereft of speech, they are immediately thrown upon their own resources. They are preyed upon by runners, sharpers, and all forms of social parasites, native and foreign. Unscrupulous agents and padrones defraud them. Even Justice is a costly privilege to the speechless unfortunates who need

the protection of the law. Most newcomers need "First Aid."

Before the emigrant arrives, he could be taught the essentials of self-protection, the preliminary difficulties and peculiar temptations which will surround him in the land of his adoption and the true facts concerning the industry in which he expects to engage. He could also be told something about our schools, libraries and hospitals.

At the present time most immigrants have very mistaken ideas about life in the United States. They over-estimate our industrial opportunities and under-rate our educational and social organizations for self-improvement.

Already small beginnings in this form of immigration service have been made. Letters from friends in the New World, from religious leaders and representatives of philanthropic organizations, help disseminate knowledge about the United States.

The great emigration ports offer special opportunities for this type of service. Here

Exterior view of the kitchen of a construction camp

the emigrant is in a susceptible mood. Before him lie doubts and dangers, fears and anxieties of an untried country. He is not used to travel. The trip from his native village to the sea-port was perhaps his first journey from home. He wants to know all about the land to which he is going. Into this troubled atmosphere the American friend of the immigrant can bring peace and contentment. Having once established this point of contact, the social worker becomes a power station through which advice, direction and assistance may be extended to all prospective settlers in the New World. Already several organizations have demonstrated the practical value of this work.

Over-sea journeys in the steerage have been made by social workers who desired to study opportunities for serving emigrants in transit. These workers are unanimous in their belief that such work is not only greatly needed, but practical. The heads of the great steamship lines are beginning to provide trained workers

to furnish entertainment and assistance for steerage passengers.

Information is given these immigrants about the United States and the laws pertaining to landing. Illustrated lectures, moving pictures and concerts are given by people of talent; games are organized for old and young; discussions and folk dances are offered. Quite recently a social worker coöperated with a number of Greeks in arranging a programme of folk dances on the deck of a Hamburg-American liner. The good will and fellowship which resulted more than repaid the efforts expended. The steerage folk constitute virgin soil for social service.

Even greater opportunities present themselves when the immigrant lands. At present a large number of philanthropic agencies meet incoming boats. While all are doubtless doing good work, there is a deplorable lack of system and a duplication of effort. No greater contribution to the protection and aid of newcomers could be made than the working out of an in-

telligent programme for receiving them at our ports of entry.

The following incident indicates the importance of the immigrant's first impressions. An immigrant from Northwestern Europe reached Boston penniless. Since he was young and strong, he was allowed to land. While searching for work, he visited a number of philanthropic institutions. Here is his story: "I began visiting the social rooms of a certain organization to rest up a while. One day the Superintendent asked if I was a member. On hearing that I was not, he told me to go elsewhere. I then drifted into an organization for sailors, but was told that since I was not a sailor I had better move on. Finally I drifted into a saloon. As I had no money to spend for drink, the bar-tender told me to go. I began to think that the United States after all was not very hospitable." This man is now a prominent manufacturer. He vividly retains these impressions of his first experiences. We must learn to welcome our newcomers.

Much can be done with the older immigrants, the fathers and mothers who tend to remain aloof from American institutions. Depressed with the difficulty of learning a new language and acquiring new standards of life and dress, they associate only with Old World friends. In a short time their children, speedily assimilated through the play-life of the street, the teachers in the public schools, the social settlements and other agencies working with them, look upon their un-Americanized parents as back numbers, deserving scant respect and obedience. Is it any wonder that such Old World parents often long for their peasant homes where they had mastered the art of bringing up their families?

A son of such parents recently requested a social worker not to visit his home because his mother was still a "greenhorn." Here was a great gulf between parent and child. Social workers can help them bridge the gulf and reduce the wreckage resulting from broken homes.

Interior view of a rude kitchen built by laborers in a construction camp.
No place to cook is provided by the company

In the case just mentioned, the gulf was crossed in a basket. The settlement which this boy visited accidentally discovered that his mother was skillful in the art of basket weaving. Friends of the settlement wished to learn the art. A class was formed with this Old World mother as teacher. As soon as the boy found that his mother had something to give to American "ladies," he recovered his respect for her.

Such incidents give new meaning to the work of assimilation. They help us realize that Old World peoples possess many assets—splendid traditions through which religious, moral and social inspirations have for centuries made their appeal. Their personal qualities such as thrift, perseverance, energy and cheerfulness, and their early respect for law should be conserved. They believe in the Young World, in its opportunities for self-development. They know that American communities offer privileges which many Old World peoples desire. Assimilation then involved a chemistry of

ideals: the blending of the best ideals of the Old World with those of the New.

The work of assimilation must be based on adequate knowledge of existing conditions. This knowledge can only be derived from a careful social survey of the immigrant community in which work is promoted. The following headings, by no means comprehensive, indicate the general scope of such a community survey: races, occupations, earnings, housing and amusements; education of children and adults, here and abroad, preparation for citizenship, desire for the ballot, interest in public affairs; the immigrant's relation to charity, truancy, delinquency and crime.

Such surveys have usually revealed several startling facts. Apparently a very small proportion of our adult immigrants come directly under the influence of the Public Schools. Older men and women dislike attending school with younger people. They also dislike large classes. They prefer the kind of instruction which will immediately help them to under-

stand their employers and overseers. These workers need a knowledge of vocational English.

Moreover, industrial workers can be best taught indirectly by the use of the stereopticon, moving pictures and lectures in their own tongues.

The ideal teacher of these people should also be a social worker. He should stand for a wider use of the school plant and for an educational programme for clubs and fraternities.

The true patriot can also render service by promoting Civic Education. Civic Education may be defined as instruction which fits a foreign-born person to enjoy the privileges and bear the responsibilities incident to citizenship. Until recently the American public contented itself with a spread-eagle optimism concerning its ability to blend many diverse ethnic groups into a civic unit. We are now beginning to see that preparation for citizenship demands patriotic conviction, intelligent plans and systematic effort. While our national laws

require applicants for citizenship to know something of the history and government of the United States and the duties of citizenship, neither federal nor state institutions prepare prospective citizens for their privileges and responsibilities.

In several cities social workers have found special Schools for Citizenship very popular. In these schools instruction is given in federal, state and city government by public spirited men. The class periods offer opportunities for free discussion and oral examination. This preparatory course includes an imaginary session of a naturalization court. A reception and banquet are tendered the new voters by patriotic organizations and the city government. Follow-up conferences are planned which direct the attention of new citizens to the necessity of continuing their civic education.

Social workers in industrial communities have also rare opportunities for interesting themselves in the health of the new immigrants.

Most of them come from small villages. Few understand the sanitary demands of modern city life. They should be taught factory, home and community hygiene and how to guard against quack doctors and patent medicines.

In many factories, immigrants are maimed and mutilated by accident. Misunderstood orders are often the cause of such accidents. A comprehensive programme of prevention of accidents is meeting the approval of manufacturers and other public spirited citizens. Illustrated lectures on the causes of accidents, instruction in different languages, on the right use of machinery, draw large crowds.

What can be done to bring native-born Americans into closer touch with the immigrant? Many Americans are not even aware of their existence. Some merely see in them a "menace" to our institutions.

The American and the immigrant should be interpreted to one another through the neighborhood worker, who can see and present facts and furnish opportunities for bringing native

and naturalized citizens together. Such first hand acquaintance will remove the prejudices and misunderstandings which have caused the downfall of the republics of old. Nor can this new Republic of ours prosper without the perfect understanding and peace which can only come from the true union of the many elements which make this nation truly great.

Suggested Reading:

Tupper, Dr. George W. Foreign-born Neighbors. Boston: The Taylor Press, 1914.

Roberts, Peter. The New Immigration. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1913.

CHAPTER X

INDUSTRIAL PROBLEMS

By R. G. Valentine

INDUSTRIAL COUNSELOR

CHAPTER X

INDUSTRIAL PROBLEMS

One of the most important needs for social work in the industrial field is to find a new method of approach. At the present time just as the business man is under suspicion by the social worker of being inhuman, so the social worker is under the suspicion of being impractical. Both are right and a good deal wrong. Two points of view frequently are mistaken for two distinct things instead of two aspects of the same thing. Very few business men who employ child labor fully realize what they do; and too many social workers, if given charge of a business, would only abolish child labor by unwittingly abolishing the chance to work.

Obviously, there is a middle ground where the two ought to meet and where good social work is good business and good business, good

social work. We all despise anyone who does not pull his own weight in the boat. Life must be profitable if life is to grow in value. To stand for anything less than profit means that life is eating into its own capital and on the way to decay.

The social worker in industry ought to get three slogans very thoroughly into his head, the Job, the Record, and the Man. The Job is called industrial engineering. We are all of us operators. From the time we get up in the morning until we go to bed at night we are doing things well, badly or indifferently.

Each race, after some generations of bumping along, like the individual blundering into maturity, begins to realize that it is worth while to keep a record of certain things done, in order to see if they cannot be done better next time in the light of this record. That is all there is to race history as well as business, bookkeeping, accounting, and the most elaborate statistical systems. In so far as they are of any value, they are merely projections of

life on paper for the purposes of studying how to handle that life better. While one set of men and women are making these records, another set of men and women are not only doing things but gradually making all manner of improvements in the ways of doing them. It is of great importance that every social worker should not only master the general principles of industrial engineering, accounting, and of statistical work, but should go through some hard, grinding work with the details of each. If this were done there would be very little gap between the social worker and the business man.

Behind the Job, behind the Record is the Man. As soon as the social worker begins to understand the other factors in industry, the business man will be more likely to believe that the social worker knows what he is talking about as to this third factor.

A story is told of a welfare worker who went to a general manager and said, "You ought to do so and so."

The manager said, "How much would it cost?"

"Ten thousand dollars."

The manager replied, "Did you ever earn ten thousand dollars?"

"No, sir."

"Well, go out and earn it and then come back and talk to me about spending it."

There is a whole unexplored country in relation to the Man on the Job which neither the social worker nor the business man knows very much about at present. Yet knowledge of that field is just as much a business necessity as it is a social necessity. During the boom which methods of industrial engineering and accounting have taken during the last few years great progress has been made in the improvement of operations of machines and processes. But the potentialities for industry and happy life combined in groups of a few hundred or a few thousand workers in each factory or shop throughout the land have hardly been tapped. One of the great difficulties in tapping these

possibilities is that it demands some initial expenditure of capital. Therefore it is only fair that there should be a certainty of return.

If the social worker has the true spirit of the engineer and the accountant, he will also be a little surer than he is at present of being on a thoroughly scientific basis in his handling of human problems. The social worker who goes into the industrial field must remember always that he will not serve his client well unless he serves him only by serving Industry. He must be in exactly the same relation to his client as the doctor to his patient. A doctor's usefulness depends entirely upon his correct diagnosis of the case and his ability to make the patient understand what he must do to cure himself. The social worker knows, and he must make the business man see that there are certain laws governing human relations in industry just as there are laws governing the cutting power of high speed steel.

There are two points of view which every social worker who desires to make himself dy-

namically useful must possess: the intensive for depth and richness and the extensive for breadth and perspective.

Once, as our train was pulling into Colorado Springs, an engineer sitting in the seat with me pointed to a big hotel and said, "Think of all the rich, unhappy people who spend their lives traveling from place to place like that and who do not even know the shape of one blade of grass from another." One must have the intensive point of view of the botanist to appreciate the big wonders of the different shapes of grass blades.

I remember seeing Ibsen's "Doll's House" both in Paris and in New York. You will recall how at the end of the play the wife goes out of the sitting room, shutting the door behind her and leaving her husband limp over a chair. In Paris, there was not a stir in the house after the closing of the sitting-room door until, on that stillness, came the sound of the slamming of the outside door. In New York, the applause began when the sitting-room door

closed and only those who knew it was to come heard the outside door slam. This fine point which the intense Parisian eagerly expected was lost on the New Yorker.

But just as this intensive approach to life is necessary to give it richness of content, so breadth of view is necessary to put life in the right perspective. Consider the situation of the general on the eve of a great battle. He must not only know the whole country with all the lines of retreat, the marshes and hills, but he must have it all figured as a unit in his mind before he can have any hope of winning that fight.

Now consider these points of view as exemplified in people at large. In these days we are becoming more and more conscious of the existence of both the individual and the social person in every human being. Many groups of people, like the employer, still cling to individualism. Other groups, like some of the trade unionists, insist that the hope of the individual lies in his being merged in the mass.

Here again, we have merely two points of view of one thing instead of two different things. Here, too, there is obviously a middle ground, the most favorable soil for the development of the socialized individual whether employer or employee.

Another grand clash between the social worker and the business man is exemplified in the issues between Science and Democracy. On the one hand, there is a best way of doing things which is scientifically ascertainable. On the other hand, our democratic instincts rebel against the all-knowing one who seeks to tell us what to do. Not even the impersonal textbook wholly succeeds when it becomes dictatorial. We like to work out our own problems, but we are just beginning to learn not only how to use helpful suggestions but how to make them. This is all there is to industrial counseling.

The social worker who thinks along these lines can hope to render useful service both to business and humanity. If he learns to ap-

proach any business proposition from the point of view of the industrial counselor, he will be welcomed in factory and store. He can help employees formulate fair demands of employers, as well as help employers formulate fair demands of employees. The industrial counselor goes into a factory or store and relates to its costs records whatever is necessary to secure safety and health and sound growth in that concern. He must possess the capacity for analyzing the effect, both on business and on the community at large, of different kinds of labor legislation. His services will thus come to be sought as legislative industrial counselor. He will gradually become an expert adviser in arbitration proceedings. As his insight into the organic life of a business grows, he will be able to help heads of the concern solve certain basic questions of organization which very few concerns in the country have yet tried to solve. He will presently become skilled in developing for any concern the best source of labor supply and the best methods of

selection from that supply. Thus he may have in a very concrete and practical sense a large hand in the organization of industry and more especially in helping to put to flight the greatest industrial evil in our midst—the evil of unemployment, not only in the sense of being out of work but being on part time work or irregularly at work.

To the industrial counselor who steadily keeps in mind the three watchwords, the Job, the Record and the Man, profit sharing, pension and insurance schemes, minimum wages and welfare work, will take on new meaning. He will see that philanthropy ceases to be real philanthropy, when it ceases to be businesslike. He will realize that what employers as well as employees need, is not charity, but justice, not gifts or bonuses but opportunity.

An investor recently told me that he thought of selling some securities he held in certain New England concerns because they occasionally passed dividends on account of labor

troubles. In every other particular he felt that they were in first-class shape.

Banking houses which sell the securities of concerns who employ large bodies of men should investigate the labor situation in such concerns as carefully as they investigate plants or audit books. It would be a fallacy, of course, to suppose that such an investigation and report, which we call an industrial audit, would be any guarantee against strikes or insure permanent stability in industrial relations. It would, however, eliminate some concerns from consideration as first-class investments, because it would reveal the certainty of strikes, or more costly still, permanent smoldering difficulties which, as matters are now handled, are unforeseen or unknown at the time securities are issued. On the other hand, it would enhance the investment value of other concerns by leading to the removal of many sources of trouble. It would enable a banking house to say to investors on the subject of labor con-

ditions, as it now says to them on the subjects of finance and plant, "A careful investigation convinces us that —— company is in sound condition."

It is time that the methods of science be applied to the human relations in industry. Intelligent studies by both employers and employees of what all concerned know and feel and complain of will result in such a grip on the whole situation as to insure industrial peace. Through industrial counseling social workers have the opportunity of applying to the personal relations throughout a business the same principles which have long been applied to machines and processes. Many of them ought to learn to make the kind of audit of labor conditions that I have endeavored to describe. It is a new kind of preventive work to which the business world so far has given little attention. The custom has been to wait until trouble has arisen before anything was done about it. The attitude of most business men on business troubles still resembles the attitude of a con-

cern which does not know its standing until notified by the bank that it has overdrawn its account. It is perhaps natural that the recognition of need for an industrial audit should have lagged behind the now well established financial audit. One who enters this field finds the most astounding blindness to the dangers of usual industrial relations, and ignorance as to the simplest of safeguards.

The industrial counselor enters a plant to make an audit. The concern may merely be conscious of pain somewhere in its inner workings; or it may be without any local pain. The general manager is conscious that his organization has not the fighting power of good health. Perhaps he has begun to doubt the efficacy of blaming and chastising labor for the organic weakness of his business. Something is wrong. How can he secure the maximum competitive strength except by first discovering the true causes of this organic weakness? He must learn to treat the cause and not the symptom.

With the coöperation of those in the business, you can investigate conditions, localize the trouble and make a clean cut written statement of what you have found. Your audit is first of all diagnosis work. Its big accomplishment is to get the current condition and relevant history of the industrial relations in the concern down on paper. Here they can be analyzed and studied. Things are likely to appear which no one in the concern may ever have thought of as trouble breeders; other things already known may appear in a new light. No concern can have an audit made without being keenly surprised at some of the dangers into which it was unconsciously drifting. Many of the evils have only to be clearly seen to be easily remedied. Where remedy is more difficult stronger and safer methods of organization have to be devised.

Though I have emphasized the practical side of industrial counseling I do not want anyone to lose sight of its other sources of appeal to men and women of character and ability. The

best business men now-a-days are in business for more than business. You can get some business men to work at one job for half as much as they would work at another, because they are interested in that job; but that too, if you look at it right, is a practical business motive as well as a social motive. And so we end, as we began: good business and social work rightly interpreted are the same thing like the two faces of the same coin.

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CHAPTER XI

THE VOLUNTEER AND CHILD LABOR REFORM

By Richard K. Conant

SECRETARY, MASSACHUSETTS CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE

CHAPTER XI

THE VOLUNTEER AND CHILD LABOR REFORM

Harmful forms of child labor waste human power in a way which is not consistent with our modern desire for scientific management. There are to-day about two million children, ten to fifteen years of age, who work in agriculture, factories, and mines, etc., of the United States. Among them there are hundreds of girls under fourteen employed in cigar factories. Over eight thousand boys, under sixteen, are working in the Pennsylvania coal mines. Over three thousand of them are employed as "breaker boys," bending with contracted chests over the coal breakers, filling their lungs with coal dust.

The employment of children is more harmful to-day than it was in the days when boys worked on our grandfathers' farms or in our

grandfathers' workshops. The work of those boys was varied and instructive. To-day, the sweeper in the textile mill gets variety in his work only by a change of broom or by sweeping a different part of the floor. The doffer boy merely removes a full bobbin from the spinning frame with one hand to put on an empty bobbin with the other hand. There is no variety in these tasks; there is nothing educational in them. The children are merely filling in gaps in machines and must work at the high speed of the machines.

For the sake of small immediate financial gain, the children are sacrificing future intelligence, health, and ultimate financial gain. The aim of child labor laws is to exclude boys and girls from harmful forms of work—dangerous trades, night work and overwork; and to conserve the human resources which are bound up in the children of the nation.

A volunteer in child labor reform serves generations. He helps establish and enforce standards of child protection. When he pro-

tects a particular child, he also protects the descendants of that child. When he establishes a new standard, he establishes it for posterity.

As no state in the Union is free from child labor problems, there is work for volunteers everywhere. In states where the laws are lax, child labor will be easier to discover and the task will be the discouraging but important one of raising standards. Where the laws are strict, the task will be the more hopeful one of enforcing standards. At the same time the more enlightened public sentiment in such states makes it possible to strive for further progress.

The establishing of standards means educating public opinion and securing legislation. There are a thousand ways in which a volunteer may help educate public opinion. Writing, speaking, serving upon committees, interviewing and publicity work are all necessary to the success of child labor laws, both before and after passage. A letter to a newspaper,

a talk in a district where enlightenment seems desirable, an interview with an influential friend, a little local committee work,—any one of these things may be the timely push that ensures the success of a good child labor law or the defeat of a reactionary measure. In nearly every state there are child labor committees or agents of the National Child Labor Committee who can unify such efforts and make them count.

Legislative campaigns offer other employment for volunteers. Investigations must precede the drafting of bills. Facts must be obtained first hand. It is not enough to ask employers or public officials in order to learn the conditions under which children work and live. A house to house and a factory to factory investigation is the only safe evidence upon which to base proposed legislation. The difficulties of thorough investigation are not insurmountable for the volunteer who aspires to give service equal to professional service. Careful training and considerable good sense

are necessary, else the bungling of a small bit of the study may spoil the entire result.

In addition to the work of establishing higher standards, there is the imperative business of enforcing them. The qualifications for this work are those required for successful case work of any kind, except that the detective faculty is more often needed. Frequently parents, employers and children regard child labor laws as rules to be avoided rather than followed. Accordingly a more than ordinary amount of circumspection must be used in addition to the sympathy and friendliness needful in all case work. To get acquainted with the children at their places of employment and in their homes demands practice. Women can usually obtain information better than men and are better able to help the families. The worker should establish such a basis of friendship that she can carry out plans for the child's future employment and education. If the child's present employment is harmful, she must convince the parents that money earned

at the expense of health is poor pay. The volunteer must learn to demonstrate the evils of child labor and the value of education.

Employers should be influenced to give as much attention to the health and working conditions of their young employees as to the scientific management of their machinery. The health of these young "hands" means the success of future generations of workmen.

In a state where the law allows children to be seriously injured by their work, it is not difficult to show that the long hours, the night work or the bad ventilation is weakening the child. The difficulty is to interest people in the child, to find a more humane form of employment. In a more advanced state where decent employments are easier to find and where there are many societies and officials who will help, the difficulty is to enforce the higher standards. In all the states such case work can be made successful by hard work and tact. Sufficient incentive will be furnished by the pathos of faces like the one in the

illustration and sufficient reward can be found in the later life of the boy or girl.

For the lawyer who wishes to volunteer there is exceptional opportunity for service. Investigations, either to secure evidence upon which to base a legislative brief or with a view to the prosecution of a single case, call for the same kind of ability that is necessary in preparing cases for trial. A clear comprehension of many complicated statutes aids greatly in securing proper remedies. A lawyer who volunteers can be of special assistance, too, in legislative campaigns.

The social side of case work is correspondingly valuable to the lawyer. As attorneys know, the new social legislation and the new decisions upon social questions make a knowledge of sociology an advantage in practice.

Physicians who wish to volunteer will find many opportunities in connection with the health of working children. Medical inspection of children and inspection of factories for injurious conditions of employment are now

securing the services of large numbers of physicians.

Volunteers from other professions and other occupations can be used because of the breadth of the field of child labor reform. The amount of volunteer service already rendered in this country has been great. Great advances in all the manufacturing states have resulted from the labor of volunteer committees. England has demonstrated the extent to which volunteer social work can be made effective. The establishment there of many volunteer committees to care for working children and the extensive use of volunteer inspectors show us that we are still in the beginnings of volunteer service.

The following example of what a volunteer can do is chosen from an occupation where such cases would rarely be expected. A nervous girl of fifteen was at the counter in her father's grocery store in Boston from eight in the morning till nine at night and until midnight on Saturdays. The long hours tired and

Courtesy of Massachusetts Child Labor Committee

HOME WORK. Children five, seven, twelve and thirteen years old setting stones in cheap jewelry by lamp-light. The children were staying out of school on account of sore throats

discouraged her. She was almost ready to run away from home, as her older sister had done, but she kept at work and did not wish to have the visitor speak about her condition to her parents until they had taken their summer vacations.

The mother was inclined to take offense at suggestions, but finally acknowledged that Anna ought to have more rest. After several visits and at times threats of prosecution, the evening work was almost wholly stopped and free time secured nearly every afternoon. Within a few months Anna was stronger, the nervous twitching of her face had ceased and she was happy and grateful.

Sometimes volunteers try to do too much. Not even the most valuable worker in social service can do more than to give, here and there, a slight push which may help to keep the line of progress straight. But in helping to secure and enforce standards of child conservation there is a chance for the volunteer's small service to be permanently effective.

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PART III

THE COMMUNITY AND THE CHILD

CHAPTER XII

THE SCHOOL AND THE COMMUNITY

By Dr. Franklin B. Dyer

SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BOSTON

CHAPTER XII

THE SCHOOL AND THE COMMUNITY

Education to-day is a far more complex problem than it was a generation ago. There were then only a few more children in all the high schools of the United States than there now are in the high schools of the city of Boston alone. The problem then was the education of the "classes." Now the problem is the education of the "masses." A generation ago a few selected individuals were educated but the common people dropped out of school at the fourth grade or sooner. Only a genius like Abraham Lincoln could be educated under such circumstances.

Yet educators are often told by business men that the public schools fail to reach the masses; that their work is not as effective to-day as it was in the days of the past; and that

on the whole the product of the public school no longer stands the fair test of business. Such critics forget that the "business of education" in the city of Boston alone to-day, means the handling of one hundred and twenty-five thousand children in school every day, by four thousand teachers in five hundred buildings.

To meet the needs of these masses of children, the course of study can no longer be uniform. There is now as much difference between the complex courses of study and the former simple course as there is between the complex remedies of the medicine of to-day as compared with the home remedies of the past. This difference in curriculum is based on the recognized difference between the various types of children, and necessitates much specialization in educational methods. Formerly all went through the same mill. Now the various physical and moral types are specially treated. For instance, we have numerous classes for the physically defective

children, such as the mutes, the deaf-mutes and the semi-blind. We find that about eighty-five per cent. of the children who have a defect of speech can be cured in a year or two if they are properly treated at the right period of their lives. A special hospital has just been established for this purpose.

Again in our schools there are about five thousand underfed children who, though without definite physical ailments, are not up to the normal standard. This is not always due to poverty. It is more a question of home training and home care. An effort should be made to give the poor children who spend money on cheap candy and pickles, fresh and better food. Better feeding would mean the improvement of thousands of children. The two-penny lunch system, now operated in many places, is admirable. Hundreds of children avail themselves of the soup and bread that is offered for two pennies.

A child is very often bad from the lack of proper food. If he has nourishment he will

turn to his work again with renewed eagerness. I have found children who breakfasted on black coffee and bread, who had nothing for dinner except such scraps as they could pick up, because the mother was away at work, and who had beer and bread for supper. That actually made up their diet except for the occasional stolen bananas and apples. One relief society took charge of a school and accomplished such splendid results that the School Committee of the city took over the work and is now itself running these kitchens.

The so-called "slow" type of child is not deficient mentally but his mental reactions and responses take more than the average time. There are eleven thousand such children in the Boston schools, who fail every year in their grades. These children may have completed two-thirds of their work and yet they have had to do it entirely over again. This waste of human resources is being righted. Boston has just appropriated twelve thousand dollars for lengthening the term of study for slow

children in the summer schools. These children are to have forty school days of four hours each more than the average child, so that they will not have to repeat the year. By prolonging their school year they can accomplish the regular amount of work and catch up with their class.

The children known in education as the "moron" type form such a large group that there are already about thirty-five special classes for them in Boston and at least twenty more needed. They have been examined by alienists and classified as mentally deficient. Yet with the proper education and care they can be made self-supporting.

For example in one school a teacher pointed out to me "Jakie," a lad of fifteen years who could neither read nor write. He seemed to be an imbecile. A long time afterwards I went back to the same school and asked the teacher about Jakie. Jakie very proudly came up with his first reader. He could actually read every word on the first page. The

teacher said, "Jakie can do something else. He can put a round peg in a round hole and a square peg in a square hole. And he is the best dishwasher in the school." On the strength of this remark I accepted an invitation to stay to lunch. Jakie with great pride showed us how he could wash dishes. The next time I visited the school, the teacher said to me, "Jakie has a nice job. He is a dishwasher and is getting four dollars and fifty cents a week. I go to the restaurant every Saturday and take Jakie's money home. If Jakie were given the money it would be spent on something foolish that would injure him." This teacher was wise enough to follow up Jakie, who belonged to the very lowest grade of moron type, almost an imbecile.

Down at the very bottom of the ladder is the imbecile who should be put into an institution. Our institutions for this class of children are generally over-crowded. They are therefore thrown upon the public schools, where they are

a great care and burden to the teacher. Fortunately the actual percentage of these children is small though the layman would be astonished to find how many of them there are. Drunkenness causes a large amount of imbecility, but a woman who is physically weak may also have such offspring and be in no wise blamable.

These lower types need follow-up care all their lives, for the moron and imbecile constitute a group from which many of our criminals are recruited at the early age of from fourteen to sixteen. When once the child is tainted, the taint remains and, as with butter, it is pretty hard to get out and not difficult to get in. To help this group of people whom we have ignored in the past is an endless job for a generation to come. Charity cannot reform them. Their teacher alone cannot look after them adequately. If she has skillfully handled her own small group of children she has done her share. It falls to the social

worker of a different type to follow up each member of the group and help find for them self-supporting occupations.

There is a small group of children who are above the normal intelligence. They should be pushed ahead so that their ambition will not be checked. Six classes have been started for the "super-normal."

Again there are types of children whom the home either neglects or cannot control. These children are not handicapped morally or physically but their environment is against them. The child who "hooks" from school is extremely difficult to keep from the influence of the street and is apt to land in the courts. There are six Juvenile Courts in the city of Boston and one Court alone has one thousand cases a year. The offenses range from truancy through drunkenness and petty larceny to thieving and robbery.

The home is no longer the training place that it used to be. In the old home children were of assistance. They helped in the weav-

ing, the cobbling, the sewing, the gardening and the care of animals. There was work for the boy and in doing that work repeatedly until it was properly done, he got the training and the education which is character building and which starts good habits. The children of to-day are growing up in the streets and in inadequate homes. Five hours a day at school cannot compete with nineteen hours at home and on the street. The influences of the street alone more than counterbalance the influences of the school. In a great many of the homes the child finds nothing that is inviting and no one to take an interest in him.

Here is the opportunity for the human touch of a person of high ideals who will lend a hand and awaken in the mother a feeling of responsibility towards her child. Special attention should be given to the whereabouts of the child at night. Almost all juvenile crimes take place from seven to ten. The social worker should see that the mothers look after the children and keep them at home. When the

child cannot be controlled by the parent, there is a definite need of outside help. The judges now inquire into the whole family history and if the home is bad, the child is sent to some relative who can give a new and wholesome environment.

Moreover the law permits children from fourteen to sixteen to leave school and go to work. At that time all home control is withdrawn. The parents say, "John is at work. We have to give him some liberty, and as long as he is contributing to the family budget, we don't inquire where he is at night." Nor does the employer feel that he ought to look after the boy's leisure hours. Thus the boy has nobody to give him advice and moral guidance at the critical period of his life. Massachusetts has just passed a law which provides four hours instruction a week at some continuation school, for every working boy and girl from fourteen to sixteen years of age. The four hours of schooling is not enough for a general education, but the opportunity that is given

the teachers to get in touch with their working lives and perhaps to advise them and follow them up until they have found a life career, is invaluable. Every teacher must work in conjunction with the settlements and child saving agencies. Following up the boy vocationally does not mean to force a life career on him, but to keep track of him until he finds a suitable one.

The public must understand how momentous is the training up to the period of sixteen or seventeen years. The character of the future life depends upon those years. The public must know how many kinds of children have to be taken care of. Unthinking people talk of "economy in education." Economy is spending money to the best advantage. One of the best channels of expenditure is providing special schools for students with special aptitudes, as well as schools for the mentally and physically deficient.

Each year eight thousand children in Boston graduate from the eighth grade and enter

high schools. By that time most pupils have very distinct and strong aptitudes and the schools should give them a chance not only in industrial and commercial branches but in various subjects. For example, among these eight thousand children in our elementary schools there are sure to be some with artistic or musical talent. Yet these incipient geniuses, unaware of their talents, go to high school until they are eighteen years old and by taking the regular course lose their special aptitude. These geniuses should be searched out by the teachers and aided to develop their special interests. Indeed every child should be guided to discover and develop his natural ability as well as to overcome his natural defects.

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CHAPTER XIII

THE VOCATIONAL MOVEMENT IN EDUCATION: ITS SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE

By Meyer Bloomfield

DIRECTOR, VOCATION BUREAU, BOSTON

CHAPTER XIII

THE VOCATIONAL MOVEMENT IN EDUCATION: ITS SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE

The explanation for the present interest in the movements for vocational education and vocational guidance throughout the country lies not so much in the demands which employers make for efficiency as in our awakening to the problems of adolescent youth.

As we consider the careers of America's children in the critical transition stage between school and work, we are struck by several momentous facts. There are something like twenty millions of our children attending school. Only five or six per cent. of the school children go to college. More than half of the children now in our elementary schools will never even graduate from these schools; they will leave as soon as the law will let them

go to work. That is, they will quit school, most of them, below the seventh grade, long before our elementary schools have had a fair opportunity to do their work.

Consider then two facts: First, that most of the children of the country do not have sufficient schooling to mold their lives in any satisfactory manner; secondly, that young children leave school for work at a time of life when they most need help and training. As we look further into the situation we become aware of a most serious condition. If these children, who leave school as soon as possible for work, were really obliged to do so we should have a clear case of economic need with which to deal. Of course a number of children do have to leave because of the pressure of home circumstances.

But we have assumed, without much inquiry, that all children who left for work had to do so. We now know better. As the result of several important studies carried on within recent years by people interested in vocational mat-

ters, we have learned that only about a third of those leaving school are forced by need to do so. The majority leave because they want to.

In the series of investigations known as "Woman and Child Wage Earners in the United States," published by the United States Bureau of Labor, three years ago, there is a volume entitled, "Conditions Under Which Children Leave School for Work." An intensive study of home, school, and work conditions of over six hundred children in seven communities, North and South, concludes that about two-thirds of these children who dropped out of the lower grades of the elementary schools could have remained if they had so chosen.

What do these disclosures mean? They signify that never in the world's history have fourteen-year-old children had it so much in their own hands to decide some of life's most momentous problems. Young children decide, mainly by themselves, and often without

even the knowledge of their parents, what school they will go to, how well they will do their school work, how soon and for what reason they will quit school for a job, what the job shall be, and when they will leave one job for another, or loaf without any job at all. The parents do not seem to count; oftentimes they cannot help even if they would. They do not know enough about their industrial environment to counsel the children. Nor are the teachers at the present time much better equipped with vital information about the world's work.

Now if the children in making these far-reaching decisions and choices could do so wisely or even with partial success, the situation would not be so bad. But can fourteen-year-old boys and girls know enough about themselves and about life to settle on any employment, not to say, career? Clearly they cannot, and the fact is they do not. Only within recent years have we begun to study the waste of talent and opportunity which this

needless dropping out from school involves, and we now have an impressive body of evidence dealing with this grave condition.

Four years ago a Royal Commission in England reported, after an exhaustive investigation of this matter, that the wholesale entrance into work of unguided and untrained young children made directly for future unemployment. Indeed, the Commission goes further and states that the unemployables are recruited from the ranks of those who began their work careers in this blind and helpless way.

What can a young boy or girl, tired of school and eager for a small wage, find in the field of occupation? The vocations which amount to anything require definite preparation. The employments which can use young children lead to nothing, as a rule. They are blind-alley jobs. They pay fairly attractive wages to beginners, but they lead to nothing. After two or three years, if higher wages are demanded, other children, duped in the same way by the initial wage, are taken on. So we

find in the cities and towns of the country young men and young women who should be at the most promising stage of their vocational life, adrift without training, purpose or settled employment.

In the Middle Ages, when industry through its guild and craft organizations, was legally responsible for the training of its workers, children did not enter the employments in the way they now do. While there has always been child exploitation, to which we are now more sensitive than ever before, there was in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries thorough provision made for safeguarding the vocational future of adolescent boys, and sometimes girls. Trades could be entered only through a rigorous system of apprenticeship training. The employer or master was under heavy penalties to teach his young apprentices all that could be taught of his craft, and besides, he was obliged to care for the health and well-being of these learners. Moreover, for centuries the home and immediate neigh-

borhood in which children grew up were centers of productive activities and boys and girls grew into their life-work in a most natural way. Their daily environment made for vocational guidance and training. They worked at home, or not far from home, and day by day they absorbed the knowledge and skill which would enable them to work with their families.

When the factory system came and took the industries out of the home, the children could no longer see the way things were made. Employers no longer undertook the training of their beginners. Trades were picked up as most businesses and trades are picked up today. But the schools were not concerned with these matters. It was nobody's business to bother about the future vocational careers of the young. Moreover, there was a naïve belief commonly cherished that the children who had it in them to amount to something would surely find their way to the top.

So we face the twentieth century with this

situation: Children leave school for work with nothing in their lives to take the place of the old-time vocational influences. An infinite complication is added by the great specialization and subdivision of the employments. In former days children could by observation follow the making of a shoe, a coat, bread. To-day more than two hundred operations are required to make a shoe; over a thousand to make a watch; in some of the Rochester clothing factories more than fifty different persons are engaged in making a man's coat; and modern bakeries are carried on like all highly organized industries. In commercial pursuits and in the professions similar specializations are taking place. A department store to-day is quite different from the general store of a generation ago.

Colleges and special schools have begun to prepare not only for the few familiar professions but for an increasing variety of callings. One of the most important lessons taught by the vocational movement is that when we pro-

vide a training programme for a pursuit we lift it into a vocation, a life-career. Not so many years ago the idea of preparing for a vocation at college was resented. President Eliot tells of opposition to the project of the late Prof. Langdell who founded the modern case system of studying law, and made the Harvard Law School a pioneer in its important field. We still suffer from a subtle disparagement of the vocational and an over-esteem for the so-called liberal education, as if the two can safely be separated in a democracy.

The vocational movement in education not only seeks to bridge the vocational and the non-vocational elements in education, to the great benefit of all the pupils, but specifically, it seeks to supply missing instruments in the modern schemes of service to the growing generation. We have seen that many children leave school because school as now organized has no meaning for them; it seems to lack connection with life; it has no message for a large number of young people who have no intention

to go to college and enter the few familiar and over-crowded professions.

For the past two or three decades we have been changing our ideas as to the function of the public school in our community life. Because home, neighborhood and the occupations no longer furnish their old-time vocational and social influences, and in truth could not do so, we find domestic science, sewing, manual training, drawing, playgrounds, and shops connected with a modern school. We find, too, commercial departments and other definite vocational opportunities offered in our great high schools. Now all these opportunities are novel in the scheme of public education. And novel and vital though they are, we complain that they do not go far enough. They do not reach all the children. We go even further and ask what the schools are doing to start the children in life and to follow their careers. In other words we are no longer satisfied with mere teaching; we ask the schools to follow the children right into the shop and office in

order to learn something about the way our education functions in practical life.

In harmony with this new concern of the schools, we find in such countries as England, France, and Germany elaborate provisions for specific vocational training and scores of juvenile labor bureaus. We find many social organizations working with the schools along the lines of vocational assistance, and in this country we find vocation bureaus, vocational guidance committees, and many school systems in which the teachers are appointed as vocational advisers and helpers. In addition to these activities, we find now more than half a dozen states with laws for the vocational preparation of children between fourteen and sixteen years, the years most decisive for vocational efficiency.

Although skill of the highest order and considerable experience are absolutely essential in the management of the vocational enterprises we have been considering, unique opportunities for volunteer service are found in this field. All the English and Scotch juvenile labor ex-

changes have a large corps of unpaid helpers, who not only give personal help of much value to the boys and girls starting life as workers, but in so doing are gaining unique insight into social and industrial problems. The after-care work of these volunteers, as it is called, is a notable feature of the child welfare work on the other side.

In this country vocational assistance is as yet in process and calls for expert service. Nevertheless some of the best work in American cities owes its strength to capable and devoted men and women who assist in the labors of vocational help to parents, teachers, and children. These unpaid workers carry on studies of a city's educational resources, the nature of the employments which use boys and girls, and they organize meetings for parents in order to help them serve more effectively as life-career counselors to their children.

All these new vocational enterprises are intended to do more justice to our children, who have thus far been without the opportunity

they hunger for, to find themselves, to discover what work in the world they could best do. They indicate a new insight into the problems of growing boys and girls; they express a more concrete and fundamental form of conservation of our human resource.

Suggested Reading:

Bloomfield, Meyer. The Vocational Guidance of Youth. Boston, New York, Chicago: Houghton, Mifflin Company. Revised Edition, 1914.

Parsons, Professor Frank. Choosing a Vocation. Boston, New York: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1909.

CHAPTER XIV

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

By H. H. Baker

JUSTICE, BOSTON JUVENILE COURT

CHAPTER XIV

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

My official experience does not entitle me to speak in regard to Juvenile Delinquency in any district of Boston except the city proper. Nevertheless, I have some impressions gained unofficially, in regard to the general situation and I give them for whatever they may be worth.

The causes commonly assigned for the present conditions of Juvenile Delinquency are the following:

1. The laws are more lenient than they used to be.

2. The children are more lawless than they used to be.

3. The parents are less strict than they used to be.

The feeling that the laws are more lenient is

due to a complete misapprehension as to both the letter and the spirit of the legislation as to children commonly called the Delinquent Law of 1906. It is true that one prominent object of that act was to prevent the making of a criminal record, but an equally prominent and explicit object was to have the children followed up much more carefully than before, and to put an end in children's cases to the practice of giving probation without oversight—a practice which, however beneficial it may be in an individual case now and then, is very damaging in the long run to the average offender and to the community.

Every boy who could have been arrested before 1906 can be arrested to-day, and with just as little ceremony. Any boy who could have been committed to a reform school before the new Delinquency Law can be committed to-day and just as promptly. There is absolutely no requirement that first offenders shall be placed on probation. Any boy who could be fined before the Law of 1906

can be fined to-day, but two sets of papers instead of one are now required for fining boys under fourteen, and a boy under fourteen cannot be committed to jail for non-payment.

The feeling that boys are more lawless seems to have little justification when one considers how New England school boys are commonly alleged to have behaved toward the masters in the district schools, dragging them out of the schoolhouses and the like; or when one reads a letter of Thomas Bailey Aldrich written in 1872, complaining that the Cambridge boys stole all the fruit in his garden before it ripened; or when one sees it stated in an authentic biography that Judge Hoar and his two brothers (the Senator and another) "used to be the three worst rascals in Concord."

The present difficulties with boys can be accounted for in much more hopeful ways than by attributing them to increased lawlessness.

The mere fact that the population of the metropolitan district has doubled in the last

thirty years would lead us to expect twice as much trouble from boys; and when we consider how many families live in flats, we realize that many boys spend far more hours on strangers' premises than when each family had at least a small yard about the house. Furthermore, the total orchard and garden space in the metropolitan district is only a small fraction of what it used to be, and even if no boy takes to-day any more fruit than the average boy took thirty years ago, the effect on the supply of fruit is much more serious and in many sections inevitably amounts to complete confiscation of the crop.

The feeling that parents are less strict than they used to be is likely to be much modified when one considers the changed conditions of life in and around our cities. When one considers the reduction which the apartment house has made in the opportunities for parents occupying their children's time out of school with chores; when one considers the greatly increased opportunity for ranging

wide from home afforded children by the trolley; when one considers the immense increase in distractions by increase in shows and amusement resorts, it seems fairer to say that the parents have more to contend with in bringing up their children than to say they are more careless. These considerations are not stated with a view to completely exempting the parents from responsibility. On the contrary, the parents have more to do with than they used to, and more ought to be expected of them; but it makes a good deal of difference in the way they respond, whether they are scolded as being more careless than their ancestors or whether they are exhorted to rise to greater responsibilities.

One important way in which they should meet their responsibilities is to join in their capacity as citizens and provide common facilities for absorbing their children's activity, now that there are so few back yards or vacant lots in which it can be worked off. The increased congestion is forcing the abandon-

ment of back yard play just as it has already forced the abandonment of back yard wells. Just as the citizens had to establish, through their city governments, common water supplies to replace the individual wells, so they must establish common public playgrounds, gymnasia, etc., to replace the individual back yard play, and the playgrounds and gymnasia must be as carefully supervised as the water supplies.

Playgrounds and gymnasia are expensive to construct and supervise, but so are public waterworks, and the expense in each case is only the natural accompaniment of increased population.

Another way in which parents should meet their new responsibilities is by supporting all movements under reliable auspices, whether church or lay, which provide opportunities for wholesome occupation of boys' leisure time. It will be futile to drive the youth of our city from the streets unless some wholesome provision is made for them elsewhere; even if we

"Shooting craps"

should succeed in eliminating them from the corners, it is probable we should be only intensifying the evil condition by their congregating without supervision in more secluded places.

It should be borne in mind that the juvenile court bears only the relation to delinquency that the consumptive hospital bears to tuberculosis. It is purely a remedial agency. The court gets the child only after something has gone wrong. You may have a perfect juvenile court system without much affecting the yearly number of new offenders, just as the most perfectly appointed consumptive hospital has little effect in cutting down the number of new cases. The only way to make a substantial reduction in the amount of Juvenile Delinquency is to prevent the children from getting into court at all.

Suggested Reading:

Travis, Thomas. The Young Malefactor. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Company, 1908.

Flexner, Bernard, and Baldwin, Roger N. Juvenile Courts and Probation. New York: The Century Company, 1914.

CHAPTER XV

SOCIAL VALUES IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE RELIEF

By William H. Pear

GENERAL AGENT, BOSTON PROVIDENT ASSOCIATION

CHAPTER XV

SOCIAL VALUES IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE RELIEF

Among civilized people the relief of needy members of a community has long been a generally accepted responsibility. Whether the alleviation of their suffering has been attempted by public agency or private initiative, the motive, until very recent times, has been much the same. It is the sympathy of the stronger for the suffering of the weaker members. The conviction is that the community as a whole should make those provisions for the care of dependents which private individuals may at any time be unable to guarantee, a sort of underwriting supposed to assure public intervention between the needy and dire distress.

It has been common to see both public and private effort in the field of relief, with a "divi-

sion of traffic" between them, the private groups choosing their objects and limiting their action in such ways as have seemed wise, but incidentally leaving to the public almoner the task of relieving in the last extremity those whom private charity has been unwilling or unable to protect.

Not without more or less difference of opinion and misunderstanding, therefore, have the two groups pursued their tasks. The public officers, when criticised for inadequate help, have contended that they could go no farther; that under the law they were not allowed the latitude of service which representatives of the private organizations could employ; while the charitable organizations, charged with "taking the cream," may have to admit that with the opportunity to select, they have often left the more unpromising and difficult problems to public authorities. Still it is not to be denied that private organizations have rendered marked service, such as making clear the meaning of constructive work, the importance of aiming

in every instance to strengthen the structure of the family helped, and the need of supplying friendly help as well as or even instead of relief.

To a greater or less extent, both groups have done the work of alleviation *expected of them,* but it is fair to contend that both may be able to develop a kind of service which will be of greater usefulness to the community. This will probably come when the public recognizes the need of it and demands it, and hence the importance of a better general understanding of the direct relation of this work to the common welfare; that is to say, its economic value. The annual reports of town officials give us much detailed information upon such points as the cost of public relief, the numbers receiving paupers' aid, or the portion of the expense found chargeable, under the law, to other communities; all quite fitting and indicating proper zeal in keeping down the cost. But in a rather extensive reading of such documents, one fails to discover much to indicate that the public al-

moner has yet any definite realization of the possible economic importance or social value of his work.

If it is contended that private organizations have contributed much in the line of research and suggestion for preventive measures, it nevertheless seems not unfair to say that such work has thus far been rather desultory and in no sense thorough-going or extensive. It may be conceded that good constructive case work, the education of volunteer workers and occasional studies of certain types of dependents, with perhaps a season's campaign for corrective legislation, have been the definite contributions of charity organization. Yet something more than these will be needed. We should have not merely the occasional study of a *certain type,* but rather the systematic and continuous analysis of *all types* of dependents and the factors that have contributed to cause this dependency.

If our social physicians were to give us an accurate analysis of causes, we should find that

the dependent might be divided into three main groups:

The first, where unpreventable calamity is responsible.

The second, wherein the distress is clearly traceable to social maladjustment, or to causes which may be eliminated by legislation or other preventive measures.

The third, in which personal frailty is chiefly responsible.

In those relatively few instances where distress is due to calamity, the cause is easily discerned and there may be little to be done besides the giving of sympathetic help to the sufferers. But with the second and third groups the case is quite different. Together they make up the great majority of dependents, and there is much difference of opinion as to which preponderates.

It seems unnecessary to waste time in controversy on this point, however, for the more we come to analyze, the more we are impressed with the great extent to which the misfortune

is due to preventable causes, and hence the increasing public interest in preventive measures.

It is not strange, therefore, that in estimating the actual value of all charitable endeavor the public is more and more coming to base its judgment upon the broader usefulness of such service to the community, and not merely upon service to the individual. This does not mean that sympathy for poverty is less keen, but that there is greater concern for prevention.

The community assumes the right to guard itself against certain things which seem a menace to the general welfare. It abates nuisances; it assumes control of contagious diseases.

By the passage of workmen's compensation acts and minimum wage laws it presumes to regulate certain conditions which may involve subnormality, because subnormality spells social degeneracy.

Why, then, should there not be the same general concern with regard to poverty?

In so far as helping agencies relieve the de-

pendent, they are dealing with a subnormal group. They strive, if efficient, to restore to normality, their work being analogous to the case-work of the doctor for the cure of his patient. But they should do more. They should so analyze this case-work as to see what factors have contributed to cause the subnormality; and they should then make this knowledge of service to the community, so that society may at least have its chance to deal with causes.

It would seem to be clear, therefore, that in doing this remedial work these agencies, private as well as public, administer a public trust; that they are responsible for its social value, the final test of which is not simply skillful case-treatment, but rather the larger service of making case-work function in community problems.

The time is coming when we shall be constantly asking, and our public and private agencies must be ready to tell us, what are the individual and social ailments or defects that we are paying for in carrying the burden of

poverty. It is important that we should not only know how many persons are aided and what it costs, but the significant fact should be pointed out that the community is really paying for need occasioned by certain definite and perhaps eradicable ills. When our social physicians begin to tell us that tuberculosis is a serious factor, if not the prime cause, in fourteen to eighteen per cent. of the dependent families; intemperance in twenty to twenty-four per cent.; desertion or non-support in fifteen per cent.; occupational disease or accident in nineteen per cent.; then we are beginning to get at the heart of the matter. When we are told not merely how many widowed mothers have been given pensions, but *why they are thus dependent,* and what we might do to check the action of preventable causes, we shall not continue to have the same complacent satisfaction in the report of how many the community is helping. We shall instead go forth on the mission of prevention, informed and with a purpose.

Once let social workers possess this sense of

the possible economic value of their daily task, and every need, every ill they see, comes with a double challenge. In it is the call for effective case treatment, ready sympathetic, energizing help; and then for that other service which may be directly and constructively useful to the community. This means deliberate re-interpretation of each situation. If on first view they have seen the opportunity, by good case work, to alleviate distress and reëstablish the independence of a needy family, they may find through re-interpretation the much larger opportunity of revealing causes which, in so far as they are social, may be removable. To reveal them, at all events, may be an important step towards their elimination or reduction.

As an example of this, take the story of Mrs. D, which is told in the 62d Annual Report of the Boston Provident Association:

"In January, 1913, a visitor of the Boston Provident Association received a teacher's application for shoes for two girls, of fourteen and eleven, who were staying out of school for

the lack of them. A visit revealed the fact that two weeks before, while the father of the family, a pipe-fitter, was making repairs in a cold storage plant, a pipe burst and he was overcome by ammonia fumes. Pneumonia developed and at the time of application the man lay critically ill at the City Hospital. The most pressing needs of the family were at once relieved, and, as it was learned that the man's employers had not been notified, and no claim made for compensation, the visitor at once attended to these matters. Two days later the man died, leaving a widow and five children, the oldest fourteen and the youngest four.

"A personal interview with the treasurer of the corporation brought out the fact that they had not accepted the terms of the Workmen's Compensation Act, but were insured by a liability company, which would naturally be prepared to defend the case; that while deeply concerned for the widow's welfare, they could do nothing for her which might prejudice the case which the insurance company would be

called upon to defend. This meant that the woman, in the face of want, must enter an unequal contest with the insurance company, to which the time involved would be of little consequence.

"In anticipation of the coming of the liability company's agent, the Provident visitor gave the woman assurance that she and her family would be provided for until a proper settlement of her claim could be secured. As advised, she declined the company's offer of five hundred dollars made two days later and placed her claim in the hands of the Legal Aid Society. Meanwhile the small insurance which the man had carried was used up in paying funeral expenses and debts, and weekly aid was given by our visitor to supplement the earnings of the oldest girl and of the mother, who insisted on working as much as she was able.

"During the summer and early autumn the Provident Association aided to the extent of two hundred and eighty-five dollars, giving from three to eight dollars a week, according

to the needs of the family. At one time it was necessary to increase this aid temporarily, because the company which employed Mary, aged fourteen, discharged all their employees under sixteen when the new Child Labor Law went into operation. When she found work again it was at a decrease of fifty cents a week from her previous earnings. Meanwhile the liability company, which had at first offered to settle for five hundred dollars, by degrees increased its offers to two thousand dollars, at which point it seemed best to settle rather than have the case come to trial.

"After the settlement, which netted Mrs. D nineteen hundred dollars, a careful statement was sent to the treasurer of the company which had formerly employed the man, pointing out the fact that this family had been forced to apply for charity owing to the company's failure to accept the terms of the Workmen's Compensation Act, and expressing the hope that they would re-insure under the Act, and thus give their many employees the benefit of its

protection. This letter met with the gratifying response that the company had not only voted the family five dollars a week for a year, but had also decided to accept the terms of the Workmen's Compensation Act as soon as their present insurance policies should expire."

Note the results:

From the stand-point of careful case work; nineteen hundred dollars secured for the dependent family, not counting the additional assistance now promised by employers, which will amount to two hundred and sixty dollars. The friendly relation established through our visitor may mean much to the family later.

From the stand-point of re-interpretation; seeing the case in terms of the larger principles involved has brought the opportunity for more far-reaching results, in the additional protection to be gained by large numbers of workmen in a great corporation, who will hereafter be insured under the Workmen's Compensation Act. In future cases of injury there, just re-

dress will go far towards rendering charity unnecessary.

It seems clear that there is distinct value in work of the sort just described; work of a kind distinctly needed by the community in cases of the second group wherein social causes are to be noted and dealt with. Yet it should be remembered that there is a possible danger of over-emphasizing the effectiveness of such remedies as legislative and other measures, of overlooking the extent to which personal frailty may be responsible.

It is this "personal frailty" type (the third group above referred to), that is so generally overlooked by those who profess to believe that there would be little or no occasion for charity if social justice were to be secured. Those who have had experience in ministering to the needy well understand that, for this third group, help will be needed long after those of the second group have been reduced by social re-adjustment to inconsiderable numbers. An example of this last type is to be found in the story of

Mr. and Mrs. X, which also is taken from the 62nd Annual Report of the Boston Provident Association:

"One day in November the Social Service Department of a hospital called for advice and financial aid in the interest of Mrs. X, their patient, with whose case they could make no headway.

"Mrs. X was forty-six years of age, worn and neurasthenic, the mother of three girls and two boys, whose ages ranged from nineteen to eleven. She had been for many weeks an out-patient at the hospital. The doctor had done his best, and the social service worker had gone into the home to learn of the patient's daily life, surroundings and habits. As a result of this social diagnosis, it was clearly seen that some worry, probably over financial matters, had a fundamental bearing on the situation. At this point we were asked to enter, and, after a series of interviews with Mr. X, we were able to reveal to the hospital the true situation. This is what was found:

"The man was employed at a good wage, but was clearly weak and vacillating; the payments to the coöperative bank, through which he was buying his little home, were many months in arrears, and the expense of Mrs. X's illness and other calls had resulted in debts which the man saw no way of clearing up.

"Our first effort lay in the direction of finding out just what obligations Mr. X had. He made a clean breast of the matter, appreciating our warning that the only hope of curing his wife lay in such a re-adjustment of their affairs as would somehow relieve the strain upon her; and he was shown the fatal error of his assumption that it would not do to trust his wife with full information and to take her into his confidence.

"A typewritten list of all the debts was made and set upon a sheet, which showed by actual figuring that certain payments made upon certain debts each month would in less than a year bring them to the point of solvency. This became the instrument which served to

win the fight. A copy of it was given to Mrs. X, one to Mr. X, another to the social worker at the hospital; and then came the task of thoroughly convincing Mrs. X that the success of the plan could be positively assured should it be followed in all its details.

"The result of this arrangement was that the man and woman actually entered upon a new era in their married life. Mr. X gave to his wife his weekly earnings with the exception of a small amount reserved for his personal needs. She knew that she could count upon this sum weekly, and she had before her a full understanding of the demands and how to meet them. Incidentally, it may be mentioned that part of the plan involved the advance by this Association of sufficient sums at certain times to enable them to discharge loans as they fell due, thus taking the man out of the hands of the money lenders.

"The doctor and the social worker at the hospital were now given their first real chance of curing their patient, for we had made a direct

attack upon the source of her worry. As time passed the children said they hardly knew their parents as they now appeared in the home, and the steady improvement of Mrs. X dated from the moment when the new plan was placed in her hands in tangible form. She will not be a well woman for some time, but the year has passed and all the debts are paid, including the advances made by this Association; the family is restored to solvency and happiness, evidence of which is given in Mr. X's statement to us when he made the final payment on our loans; 'I truly believe,' he said, 'that but for this help of yours, my wife would have been dead and our home lost. We now have courage to send Henry to the Agricultural College and our winter's coal is in and paid for.' And he concluded, 'I have told my experience in this matter to as many as a half dozen young married men, for I think it will not hurt them to know of such an experience as mine.' "

Of course all general classifications are dangerous and typical cases are apt merely to

suggest rather than characterize. But if the foregoing statement is descriptive of a kind of service which is of value to the community, as well as to the persons helped, it would seem clear that we need and should expect such service, whether public or private agents are acting for us.

Let this matter of the significance of the service be understood and both will be better prepared to help settle the much disputed question of the relation of private to public aid and the proper function of each.

We have tried the plan of dividing the traffic, but it is necessarily subject to constant revision. The dividing line is never clear and poaching is not unheard of. The community needs the service of both and should expect of them a combined attack that shall be more purposeful and more effective than has thus far been made.

Whether we wish it or not, the present tendency seems to be towards an extension of relief from public funds, and such legislation as has recently been passed in many states, making

provision for aiding dependent mothers, is ample evidence of the fact, though by no means all there is. Surely, then, it must be of prime importance that the economic significance of the undertaking should be appreciated and its social value correctly rated; for we must have the benefit of preventive social work as well as of preventive medicine.

Suggested Reading:

Richmond, Mary E. Friendly Visiting Among the Poor. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1906.

Warner, Amos G. American Charities. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company, 1894.

PART IV

SOCIAL AGENCIES

CHAPTER XVI

SOCIAL SETTLEMENT WORK

By Mrs. E. Whiting White

HEAD RESIDENT, ELIZABETH PEABODY HOUSE

CHAPTER XVI

SOCIAL SETTLEMENT WORK

The social settlement movement is the youngest movement in philanthropy. "Twenty Years at Hull House" practically covers the first two decades of the movement, not merely in Chicago but in America. Jane Addams is thus one of the first American pioneers in the movement. But the ideal of democracy began to clarify in the early part of the nineteenth century, first in England and a little later in America. The conviction grew that thousands of persons did not get a fair measure of the good things in life and that the needs of the people could only be adequately met by the common understanding of class and class.

The Workingmen's College, which was started in East London in 1860, may be said to be the forerunner of the social settlement

as well as the beginning of the university extension movement. Charles Kingsley and John Ruskin were deeply interested in the Workingmen's College. They were assisted by many students from the University of Cambridge.

In 1867, Edward Denison, a man of culture and some means, took up residence in East London. He visited in the neighborhood, taught classes, and prodded public officials much as we do to-day. Edward Denison died in 1875.

Arnold Toynbee then took up the work. Two years after his death in 1885, the first university settlement, Toynbee Hall, was founded by Oxford men and put in charge of Canon Barnett. Toynbee Hall stood for democracy pure and simple. It advocated, in the language of Canon Barnett, "education by permeation" as well as the necessity for direct instruction. The æsthetic side of life as expressed in music and art was especially emphasized.

SOCIAL SETTLEMENT WORK

The first exponent of the social settlement movement in this country was Dr. Stanton Coit, who founded the Neighborhood Guild in New York City in 1887. There are now, in 1914, some four hundred and thirty-five social settlements scattered throughout the country, all working with the same motive and the same object. The United States offers an especially favorable field for the development of the settlement idea. The needs of city life are urgent. The influx of immigrants from all lands has given a new turn to the problem of democracy: the unification of diverse racial stock into a social whole. Now the social settlement, whose root idea is "service through sharing in the spirit of friendship" can do a great deal toward bringing about coöperative action on the part of various races. Moreover, the fact that in this country democracy is a living ideal, has given the settlement an opportunity to make people believe in it and understand it. The social settlement tries to make democracy real, to point out fields of action and in every

way to bring to the front people who could in no other way be understood.

Social Settlements are, in the main, organized along similar lines though they vary greatly in atmosphere and in the emphasis of their work. The adaptability of the settlement to its local situation is the test of its efficiency. Club and class work is the most obvious form of its activities. This club and class work, however, is actually the smallest part of the work of neighborhood houses. If more than two-fifths of a worker's time is spent in group activities, something is wrong. At least three-fifths of a worker's time should be spent outside the four walls of a settlement house—in touch with the full flux of outside life—in neighborhood visiting, attendance at neighborhood meetings, weddings and other social functions.

Much is to be gained by merely being on the street. The summer time is most valuable for the promotion of sociability. The worker who can easily mingle with the street

groups and who hears the street gossip, gets at the under current of the neighborhood life.

Another test of the settlement's efficiency is the interlocking of interests of the various grades in society. A settlement worker needs a wide range of contact in order to get a normal interpretative background and to further the settlement aim of interweaving the common needs of citizenship. There should be a delicate balance, from the point of view of a worker's time, between time expended in getting at reactions in the settlement's immediate neighborhood, and strengthening or modifying those reactions by a city-wide sense of the larger issues involved in every local situation. The worker who comes into close contact with a wide range of people and gathers a wide range of information, comes very near to knowing what is vital and is therefore capable of exercising sound judgment.

The function of the social settlement may be said to be two-fold. First to coöperate with the personnel of its own neighborhood and

swing in with its activities. Secondly, as a result of first hand knowledge of the neighborhood, the settlement should make its knowledge available to the public at large. Here comes in another balance. Not only should there be an adjustment, in the case of the individual worker, between the time spent in activities within a settlement house, and time spent outside, but there should be a balance on the part of the settlement itself, between its concentration on the local situation and its entrance into city, state or even national lines of action as a result of its local experience.

The local experience is always the illuminating point and a settlement that makes it a rule only to take part in those lines of public action which can be tested in terms of the lives of boys and girls, men and women the settlement knows, will never go off at a tangent. When public needs become personified to a worker, there results a virility of action which goes straight to the mark. I believe it is largely because of this personification of need

that the social settlement movement, in its comparatively short existence, has initiated and been concerned in the establishing of so many important civic and educational movements. As an example of what can be done by a settlement worker to meet a given need, we have the pioneer work of Miss Lillian D. Wald of New York in the field of nursing.

Industrial education is an out-growth of settlement experiments. The settlement has always kept closely in touch with educational methods. It works in close coöperation with the public schools. The settlements stand as a unit in favor of socializing the public schools and the larger uses of school buildings. The playground movement is an outgrowth of settlement playgrounds. Milk stations for infants, and kindergartens have also been gradually taken over by public agencies.

Settlement workers frequently tend to become specialists along a given line. Often the shock of a given need is borne in upon them by a concrete situation, at once immediate and

challenging. This may best be illustrated by a story. A worker who had only been in the cause a short time and whose interests at that time were undifferentiated, answered the door-bell one afternoon to find a little boy who asked if he might enter. He was a ragged little chap, unknown to the house. He was admitted and given a picture book, in which he became absorbed. Later the bell rang again. This time the door was opened to visitors who were shown over the house. When they reached the room where the boy was sitting the worker said by way of introduction, "and this is John." To everyone's astonishment, the boy stood up, walked forward, and in quite the most refined way, held out his hand and said, "I am pleased to meet you." That night the settlement worker went home with the boy and found his family living in a basement, under unspeakably bad conditions. From that day to the present, Housing and its related problems have been vital issues with that worker. Housing now means to her more than

technical dimensions. It is the human side which holds us all in this work.

Volunteer service has been one of the richest assets of settlement work. This service instead of lessening in effectiveness is becoming more valuable. Volunteers are sensing the need of special study of our present day problems. They are coming to see that they must have a background if they are to do well the tasks to which they are assigned. They realize the need of promptness and regularity in meeting appointments. Volunteers frequently tend to become confused by the manifold activities that radiate from a settlement house and fail to get a sense of proportion and to see where their work fits in. It should, therefore, be part of a settlement's programme to have frequent meetings of its volunteers.

At the same time volunteers should not expect to get knowledge of so complex a situation as that of a settlement, pre-digested so to speak. A volunteer will get no more from her contact with the neighborhood than the

work she puts into it. One cannot see a situation clearly without continuous contact. It takes years for a club to develop through the power of companionship and through loyalty to the ideals of the group. Friendship, too, is not cemented on the instant. If volunteers wish to get the full richness of the opportunity which lies before them, they must give themselves with full abandon to the tasks they undertake.

The training of the volunteer is perhaps one of the most important functions of the settlement. We had with us at one time a volunteer with every possibility in her. She had a fine mind. Her enthusiasm was real but the situations she met with were not related to anything in her experience. They were a part of another world. I asked her to see "Strife" with me. "Strife" is, as you know, an exposition of the labor question. As the curtain went down on the last act, the girl said to me slowly, "Do such things actually exist in life?" The girl had been set to think-

ing and is now one of our most faithful and mentally poised volunteers. We must interpret to our volunteers the things we see, so that they can go to their own spheres with a deeper understanding of the fact that all communities are organically united. Thus can our neighborhoods contribute with full largess to other districts. We on our side need their fresh reactions on our situations. There should be a continuous give and take.

The college student has a real place in settlement work, and the settlement offers an opportunity, as yet scarcely developed, for applying the test of life to the student's knowledge. Many settlements have fellowships for resident students. Participation in the work is one of the requirements. Numbers of students base thesis work on knowledge gained from volunteer work. In the future, however, I feel we shall not take any responsibility for thesis work, unless the student resides in a settlement or gives a sufficiently large block of time to become steeped in the counter reac-

tions of our people. Think of the flesh and blood lessons in immigration, cost of living and political economy, which settlement contact affords.

One of the most valuable contributions the settlement is destined to make is towards the science of group action, which is, I believe, to be back of the philanthropy of the future. In cases of individual need we have not, up to the present, paid enough attention to the group with which the individual associates. For instance, the ultimate success of probation work will rest on our ability to weave around persons the healthy coöperation of the groups of which they are a part. A group of boys can do more for a bad boy than any social worker or probation officer.

One of the best things the settlements are doing is to train boys and girls to think straight and to maintain their self-hood in a group and yet to work with others sympathetically and coöperatively. Many a boy or girl has his

or her outlook on life changed by club work. A club member comes to see his relation to others and reach the point of not being swept off his feet when one of fifty, or a hundred or two hundred. When one sees a street gang, with all the earmarks of a gang, develop into young men who are not the first to be turned off when work is slack or the last to be taken on and whose manner and self direction has been largely trained in club work, one comes to appreciate club action. Definite proof of the value of a house to its membership comes through evidence of the same kind of loyalty to the settlement which graduates feel toward their college. One young and successful lawyer, once a member of one of our clubs, has sent us one hundred dollars for six consecutive years.

The recently organized federations of settlements in our cities have greatly strengthened the settlement movement. These federations bring the houses in a city into a coöperative

whole. High standards in each branch of work are established and efforts for legislative and educational measures gain in force.

Finally, the settlement movement is getting more and more recognition from groups not formerly its advocates. For some time business men thought settlement workers visionary. Now business men are beginning to see that they cannot get efficiency without healthy minds and bodies. When we fight for environmental conditions we are preserving the red blood of the children. The social life of the boys and girls must be kept pure and wholesome. Hence our emphasis on recreation. The vocational aim and educational efficiency must be geared high. Hence our experiments in the educational field.

As in the past so in the future the social settlement has an important part to play in its influence on the individual life; in stimulating civic responsibility through coöperation on the part of the net-work of groups that create our civic situation; in identifying itself

with public movements when it has a contribution to make which is based on actual experience; and in standing for the true living up to the justice of equality of opportunity.

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CHAPTER XVII

CHILD CARING WORK

By J. Prentice Murphy

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CHAPTER XVII

CHILD CARING WORK

Child caring work is an inclusive phrase. It is here used to cover the placement and supervision of children in institutions and foster homes. That at all times many children are the objects of abuse or neglect, or the crushed products of social maladjustments, indicates a state of affairs which social students hope some day to see almost completely removed. Until such time arrives, however, special training and correctional care will have to be given to great numbers of children, and necessarily by groups of highly trained workers.

There can be and is no more important division of the field of social service than that which relates to children. Their future and the safety of the nation depends upon the care they receive to-day. According to the last

United States census there were for various reasons more than one hundred and fifty thousand dependent and neglected children being cared for apart from the homes of their parents. That there are so many of these needy children, excluding delinquent children, must indicate to the most casual reader the great importance of the work of those agencies whose searching duty it is to care for them, and it should be easily discernible why the problems of their education and maintenance are matters of supreme concern to the state as well as to the individual.

In this field of social work where state and private organizations abound, there are wide opportunities for service. The accredited schools for the training of social workers are not able as yet to graduate enough students to meet the demand; nor will they be for a long time to come.

The kind of work done by children's organizations and institutions differs widely so that expert advice is needed in order that those who

wish to train or give service may get into the right hands. For example, a few states have good departments for the care of dependent and neglected children, but the large majority offer nothing above the mediocre. In the field of private service there are certain children's organizations which are doing a profoundly fundamental work for the children in their care, while other societies, often bearing the same names and having similar charters, are doing work notorious for its destructive, re-actionary, and mediæval character. This condition of affairs leads properly to a discussion of the controversy which has waged for many years as to just what is the best way to care for a child which for any reason has to be removed from its own home.

The controversialists divide roughly into three groups; those who advise the institution; those who advise the family home; and the third, a compromise group, which contends that the best methods call for the use of both institutions and family homes, the exact kind of care

to be determined by individual needs and conditions. It should be said that here we are discussing only neglected and dependent children. It is readily agreed that for a large number of delinquent children the institution method at this time is the best way to approach their better training. For certain children the discipline which can be administered to a group is the only way of changing bad habits and anti-social tendencies. Of course, no child ought to be subjected to this strict institutional care without a most careful personal inquiry having first been made; a procedure which is not as common as it ought to be.

During the first half of the last century social service work for children was quite chaotic and indifferent. A child so unfortunate as to be without proper home care, if offered anything better in the way of care, usually received it in some sort of institution. If it was delinquent it either went to prison or to a reform school, if there happened to be one of the latter. If dependent, that is with no rela-

tive willing or able to give care, it went to the local almshouse or perhaps to an institution for children, where it frequently remained for years. In time it was probably taken away by someone for service in his home, this transaction being covered by an agreement which often failed to protect the interests of the child. In many cases the child was dismissed from the institution at an early age in the hope that the training it had received would enable it to make its own way in life without further dependence on charity; the institution's responsibility and interest ending on the day of dismissal. Sometimes if a needy child came from a home in a remote rural community where institutions were either non-existent or far distant, the local overseers might board it with a nearby family for a short while, their chief concern being to get it off the poor rates at the earliest possible moment.

Under such a system gross abuses were bound to develop. The jails were then the breeding places for crime (a condition all too

prevalent to-day); the reform schools were only the crude beginnings of some of the excellent industrial schools we have now; institutions for dependent children were usually large, barrack-like structures which along with the reform schools were often little better than the homes from which the children had originally come.

As a protest against this condition of affairs, Charles Loring Brace, founder of the New York Children's Aid Society, began in the early fifties to send needy children who came into his care directly to foster homes in the country around New York City. Gradually this work developed to such an extent that his society was soon sending children across the country even into the Dakotas and down the Mississippi Valley. The principle of the movement was that if the family is the normal and natural social unit, the sooner you get your neglected children into its life, the better for them and the community. This movement was watched with great interest by many social students of the

time, for during the twenty years following the first beginning similar societies were established in other cities and states.

The movement was the object of much criticism on the part of those who advocated the institutional method. Their field of work was likewise expanding, for in this period came the Civil War which resulted in the breaking up of countless homes throughout the North and South, thus making homeless many thousands of children.

In fairness it must be said that if many institutions were doing a bad job, a number of the family plan societies were equally open to criticism. The "bound boy" of the latter was often a truly tragic figure. The extremists on the one hand said that institutions were the only suitable training places for children, and on the other hand, with equal absurdity, that the worst family homes were better than the best institutions. For many years the meetings of public bodies dealing with social problems echoed pro and con with discussions of like tenor. Now

we are beginning to see things more rationally, for the problem has varying aspects depending on the community where it is being worked out.

The institution plan calls for the training of the child in a group of other children, frequently apart from the outside world; the training group being large or small, depending pretty much on the size of the institution. The present day institution arguments briefly put, presuming, of course, that the institutions are well conducted, are about as follows:

The children are under supervision and oversight which enables those in charge to know quickly where they are and what progress they are making. Where children are widely scattered in families this closeness of oversight is well-nigh impossible.

Frequently a neglected child is so very much in need of training that it is all but impossible to find a dependable family that will receive it. Here the institution meets an otherwise unfilled need.

School work can be better controlled and is

of a higher standard, especially if the institutions use city schools. Country schools are frequently ungraded and of a low standard.

The health of the children can be more carefully supervised. Higher standards of treatment can be more easily established.

Vocational needs can be more efficiently met because of the control the institution has over the environment of the child. It is a fact that much of the best vocational work is being done by the institutions.

The child's religious beliefs can be best conserved in the institution. This is a most important factor with many people. Most of the child placing societies, especially in the East, find it very difficult to place their Roman Catholic children in homes of the same faith. It is equally difficult to find enough Jewish families for dependent Jewish children.

Institutional life can be made as attractive as family life. The old style prison-like building, without beauty or adornment, is not a concomitant of institutional care. Witness the fine

cottage plants which have been erected by certain institution boards within the last decade. The New York Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Orphan Society at Pleasantville has a model cottage institution, where the daily life of the children is in an unusually æsthetic atmosphere. The New York Orphanage at Hastings-on-Hudson is equally well known for its emphasis on attractive cottage life. Both of these institutions aim to develop family life within their cottage groups.

Certain psychologists contend that during certain years children crave group associations, which can best be met through the institution.

It is also contended that it is easier to secure efficiency in an institution staff than in the average run of family homes.

The institution protects a child from the mercenary spirit which it is thought by some actuates the family taking it for board.

The family plan alone is impossible in congested centers like New York or Chicago. Not

enough families can be found to give efficient care to all the needy children of these communities that must be separated from their own homes.

The family, or child placing plan, as it is called, involves the training of a child in a family home selected with particular concern for its own needs and development, there letting it make the varied and complex community contacts which are necessary preliminaries for later adult responsibilities and temptations. The arguments for the family plan are, therefore, briefly put as follows:

The family is society's natural training place and no artificial unit, no matter how ably managed, can improve on it. Every institution must at some time send its children out into the world and often this transition comes when they are least able to make successful adjustments to new conditions. Therefore, if children must live in families at some time it is the wisest plan to have them trained under family conditions from the start.

The family gives to a child those common experiences and temptations which are essential to the development of its character. Children are born; parents, relatives, and friends die. These difficulties which must be met are out of joint with the routine and orderly life of a well conducted institution.

The institution plan is not advisable for certain groups of children, such as babies. It is also too inflexible in caring for a single family group if we go on the principle that only rarely should they be separated from each other.

Very good vocational work is being done by agencies employing the family method. One must remember that many communities provide opportunities for vocational training for the children of unbroken homes. Child placing societies are easily able to utilize these opportunities for their children.

There are difficulties in the matter of conserving the religious beliefs of some children under the family plan, but they are not insur-

mountable; at least the non-Catholic and non-Jewish institutions can raise no valid objection on this point.

The family permits of individuality of treatment which is impossible in the institution. There can never be as many types of good institutions as there are of family homes.

The educational objection is fallacious. Very few institutions are doing anything educationally that is above the ordinary, except as they pattern after the child placing societies in using the public schools. The best placing societies, moreover, do not bury their children in remote rural communities.

The claims of better oversight and greater ability to care for the very neglected, and of more efficient working staffs, can best be answered by studying the work of certain reputable child placing societies. In each instance they are able to match service for service with the institutions.

Normal family life is the best conserver of

health, especially when supplemented by the careful oversight of trained physicians, a plan which the best placing societies follow.

The family plan is the most economical method. It calls into service the good will and interest of many who are not reached by the institutions. This is a matter of great importance in any social programme.

It is true that some people take children for purely mercenary reasons, either because of the work they can get out of them, or because of what is paid for their board. The careful society must see to it, however, that such people are weeded out. It is probably not too much to say that a mercenary atmosphere may also permeate some of the institutions whose budgets are largely financed by gifts from the public treasury.

It is the writer's belief that the placing of children in families when at all possible is the wisest course, and that this policy as against that of the institution will in time generally prevail. Social programmes move slowly, and

not every community will support the soundest principles at the start. Many millions of dollars of public and private funds are being devoted each year to the care of needy children in the United States. To see that this immense sum does a truly preventive work in the lives of these children is a colossal task. No line of action can be entered upon lightly.

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CHAPTER XVIII

ORGANIZATION OF CHARITY

By Lee K. Frankel

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CHAPTER XVIII

ORGANIZATION OF CHARITY

All who have followed the trend of private charitable development within the last decade must have noticed the rather remarkable change of feeling that has taken place toward all charitable enterprise. There was a time when connection with charitable organizations of any kind, and by this I make no reference to relief or any particular phase of philanthropic work, spelt prestige and reputation, and when the organizations themselves called forth an unparalleled degree of confidence from the public. To-day, readers of the daily press and the current magazines must realize that at the present moment, many charitable institutions are subjects not for commendation, but for criticism. It is now highly popular to score the methods of charitable administration.

The private philanthropic agencies of New York City, of necessity the biggest in the country, have been particularly subjected to criticism. Its largest and probably most prominent agency, the Charity Organization Society, is severely censured for spending large sums of money for purely administrative work, such as the payment of large salaries to administrative officers, and the liberal use of funds for everything else except the relief of those for whom the money was originally contributed.

The criticism against Charity Organization Societies has gone further. It has found expression in recent legislation, in the most enlightened states in the Union, in the form of mothers' aid and widows' pension laws. These laws are founded on the theory that private charity has been unfaithful to its trust, that its administration has been lax and that its funds somehow fail to bring relief to the widow and the orphan. This movement of public relief to the widow and mother, strug-

gling single-handed to bring up her children as an asset to the state, has gained ground with remarkable rapidity. To-day, state after state is legislating for the expenditure of public funds for her special benefit. To be sure, these laws are not strictly measures of relief, but measures of debt to mothers for bringing children into the world. Indirectly, they reflect a popular distrust of the adequacy of private relief.

The extremists, of course, go even further. They condemn charity as the most undesirable growth on the body politic. They hope that the time will come when this word "Charity" will be entirely eliminated from the dictionary. Above all they dislike the implication of charity that there always will be people in need.

Nothing that was ever printed concerning charity is more prejudicial to the advancement of civilization than the statement in the Old Testament that "The poor shall not cease out of the land," or its re-statement in the New, "For

the poor always ye have with you." These statements, which, like many others in both Testaments, are unfortunately taken too literally, have encouraged us up to this date to continue methods and systems of exploitation, and to solace ourselves with the belief that by contributing to the care of those who are neglected and punished as a result of our own misdeeds, we can make amends for actions which we should never have committed.

Unfortunately, however, *the poor are still with us* and the defective conditions under which they live cry out for relief. No one can look far enough ahead to say when poverty *will* cease. This millennium will only come when we fully realize the exhortation: "Have we not all one Father? Hath not one God created us? Why do we deal treacherously every man against his brother?" Such a millennium will bring equal opportunity to all to enjoy the full fruits of the earth that God has given, not for the few, but for the many.

But the problem that confronts us is a con-

dition and not a theory. How shall we best meet it? What can we do to so organize our private charitable systems that they shall be effective and economical? How shall we make them do the one thing which we are all striving for, namely, help to abolish poverty? More immediately, how are we to reëstablish individuals who have fallen by the wayside, and restore to economic independence those who, in ninety-five instances out of a hundred, have become poverty stricken through no fault of their own? If we study the records of charitable societies to-day, we find that the largest part of relief work is the result of extraneous causes, such as sickness, widowhood, accident, old age, desertion and other causes absolutely outside of the control of the individual.

How then shall we conduct our work in order to cope effectively with these causes, without permitting the individual to starve in the meantime? First of all, charity work must be conducted on a business basis. By that I do

not mean that we should banish sympathy and love and forget the true meaning of the word "Charity." Since we are in the midst of a world of organizations, we must run our charitable organizations as intelligent men and women run their business establishments.

The principle of organization may be carried too far as has been the case with certain trusts. No one, however, can deny that the principle of efficiency and of economy underlying the "Trust" idea, has played an important part in the process of industrial evolution. It changed the old, chaotic, competitive and wasteful way of doing business into a systematized and organized plan.

For instance take a large industrial plant. How does it run? First of all there is the Executive, the employer, the owner of the business, the man with brains and genius and vision. He is the ideal captain of industry, the man who looks ahead, who sees the possibilities and difficulties, who comprehends them into one grand plan and then proceeds to secure ex-

perts in their respective lines to carry the plan into effect.

Then come the heads of departments whose business it is to make the departments interlock and mutually sustain each other. For example, the Sales Department and the Manufacturing Department must work hand in hand, each giving new hints and cues to the other.

A dyeing concern in Germany kept one hundred and fifty chemists for purely experimental work. The results which they eventually discovered made this plant so efficient that until within a very few years no American manufacturer was able to compete with it. Everything was done in accordance with the highest standards of efficiency. This then, is the principle of organization which we must apply to all charitable work.

The time is coming when every Charity Organization Society will employ a managing expert to overhaul its affairs. This expert must be an outsider, preferably a man who knows nothing about charity, but who has studied and

successfully applied the principles of scientific management. We must all learn to make an audit from time to time in order to determine whether our methods are antiquated or up-to-date.

So much for the mechanics of charity organization. But the reorganization of charity calls for much more. The belief is still current that the primary object of a Charity Organization Society, more especially of the so-called "Federation," is to receive funds. The directors of such Federations apparently think that their duties are ended when they have raised the money needed for the work in hand.

Who knows what really is required? Who knows the extent of poverty and whether adequate relief is being given from the standpoint of local conditions? Has a survey been made of conditions actually existing in the communities? What is being done with the thousands of immigrants who come here unacquainted with our conditions? We do not know. Few

could attempt to say what the present charitable needs of their city are. How are we going to find out? The city of Boston has possibly gone as far as most cities, in that it has a Federation in which all forces have been concentrated in one central body. But no city has gone far enough in the reorganization of its charitable activities. The only method to discover the needs of any community and to help satisfy them, is to establish an organization which will be something more than what the ordinary Federation has been.

Such an organization will not only be sound in spirit but in its methods. It will logically be based on business principles, and its Executive Department will be the Board of Directors. This Board will consist of the men and women with genius, intuition, imagination and vision to see what the community needs. They will be the men and women who will give of their time and their wealth to meet the exigencies of any new situation. They will not be satisfied with a financial bureau, whose ob-

ject is the raising of funds. That is only one phase of the federating principle.

An ideal Federation of allied charities ought to have a manager precisely as the Steel Trust has its manager. It must be able to pay him a salary proportional to his ability. It must have an expert as its head or it cannot do the work properly. The manager must be able to transmit his genius, knowledge and enthusiasm to all who work under him. Such a Federation ought to have its research laboratory or field work in charge of experts keen on discovering the latest and best methods of organization and relief.

After having found out the needs of the community by such means, it will try to satisfy them by suggesting to the people just what steps should be taken. The success of any suggestion depends on one's powers of presentation. A Federation or Charity Organization Society must be able to present to the community a proper statement of its work before it will be adequately supported. A man

buys stocks and bonds in certain corporations because they can present financial statements that appeal to him. Corporations have learned that unless they do this there is no use attempting to arouse public interest. The man who reads the financial statement of the Steel Corporation or of the American Smelting and Refining Company or any other enterprise, becomes interested whether he invests or not. When the National Cash Register advertises, it gets business because it knows how to advertise. It gives the people concise information about the things in which they are interested. It advertises specialties. Such statements present pertinent facts. They represent careful study and preparation by experts.

I have rarely seen an advertisement of a charitable society which fitly presented its case to the public. One exception might be noted. It was an advertisement of the Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor in New York City, and its object was to tell the people what the society was doing for chil-

dren suffering from tuberculous diseases of the joints. It was a picture of a boy strapped to a board. Through that advertisement, this boy is now probably known to all of us as "Smiling Jim." The advertisement went all over the country. The picture told the story, and brought the Society five hundred thousand dollars for a new building.

All Charity Organization Societies should make their annual reports tell a story. They should net results. Unless we can show the public or the people we are particularly trying to interest in our work, that we *are* accomplishing results, that we are really establishing facts, that in our hospitals, for example, we are successfully curing people and not simply counting the number of days of treatment or the cost per capita, we cannot expect to create a very strong appeal. The public is not attracted by advertisements that appear in daily newspapers unless they appeal to reason and bring conviction home that they mean what they say.

Charity organizations of the past laid most stress upon the purely relief side of their work. The complicated questions we now meet with day after day in our large cities did not then arise. Ordinarily the poor man required food and lodging. When this was given to him, he was able to preserve and maintain his self-respect.

These conditions no longer exist. Every charitable society to-day meets complicated situations and must be equipped with sufficient expert ability to study them. I believe it would pay any community to obtain the best service possible. The result of such service would be an increase in the finances for the support of the charitable institution.

This leads to an important thing that the ideal Federation could do, and that is, educate its own members. Up to date we have been very self-satisfied in the United States. We have felt that our entire duty was to educate our beneficiaries. We have acted the "Lady Bountiful," and at times have gone around al-

most with an air of holiness. We have patted ourselves upon the back with a consciousness of having done a charitable act, after having visited a poor family and explained to them their shortcomings and misdeeds.

I am reminded of a wonderful story by a great sociologist—George Ade. In his most remarkable series, "Fables in Slang," he tells a story of "The Good Fairy with the Lorgnette" or "How She Got it Good." This is a very delightful story of a lady who came into a poor home with her lorgnette up to her eyes, inquiring of the very poor woman who was at the washboard whether her husband worked and whether he drank. The poor woman's young boy rebelled at the intrusion, and as this "good fairy lady with the lorgnette" left the alleyway, she was followed by an overripe tomato, which landed just where the boy wished it to land. The story ends with a moral on public service, and that moral is, "when uplifting, get underneath."

Herein lies a suggestion as to the real trou-

ble with our charitable work. It has been done from above with condescension, with arrogance. The attitude of a Federation or Charity Organization should be to educate its members along the lines of brotherliness; of prevention of charity rather than relief. Such a Federation should give its beneficiaries the chance they deserve, as working men and women, to avoid becoming future recipients of charity. It would be far better if employers of labor invested their federation contribution in their working establishments, and saw to it that those who enable them to live in luxury likewise partake of some of the advantages of which they are to-day deprived. It is the great work of our modern civilization. This world was not created for the few.

An ideal federation on this order is not an impracticable proposition. It is one that is being tried in Cleveland. I am optimistic enough to believe that the day will come, despite that old saying that "The poor shall not cease out of the land," when we will recognize the rights

of human beings. We shall no longer thrive upon the profits made out of the exploitation of men, women and children unable to properly provide for their own needs.

A matter of this kind concerns both the Church and the Charity Organization Society. It is an intergral part of the church work. It is for the intelligent men and women who realize their responsibility in the community to take the initiative. They must show the community at large what must be done to make everyone realize what charity really is—the giving to all of an equal opportunity for manhood, virility and honesty.

If we are to allow pauperism, vice and immorality to rule, if we are to countenance things we now know to be wrong, even though we knew nothing about them a few decades ago, then let us realize in our lives the truth of the great challenge: "Have we not one God? Hath not one God created us? Why do we deal treacherously every man against his brother?" The Mosaic code has no word

for "Charity" as known in modern civilization. "Zdokah" is "Justice." Justice will come when men no longer have to work under bad conditions and live under worse, when as brother to brother we shall give all the opportunities we crave for ourselves—the chance to live uprightly, honestly and decently, and to have ambition and hope. That is what Charity Organization should spell for all of us—an organization committed to the bringing about of ideal conditions.

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CHAPTER XIX

THE CHURCH AND SOCIAL SERVICE

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CHAPTER XIX

THE CHURCH AND SOCIAL SERVICE

Many people criticise the Church as a backward institution. There is no justification for this severe arraignment. This backwardness is due to the imperfect condition of human society, which is an organism of slow growth through many crude stages of barbarism to civilization. As long as there are barbarous periods in human history, so long will all our institutions partake of the nature of the ruling barbarism.

Consider mediæval Europe. Everything was backward. The law was merely a theory, not a rule of practice. What did the medicine of that day amount to? It probably killed more people than it it helped. The governments of mediæval times expressed the barbarous ideas of people who had not found them-

selves morally, spiritually or socially. Most of the European governments were barbarous for some hundred years after the Christian era began, although the Hebrew people had evolved some very remarkable social and religious ideals which still dominate the thought of to-day.

Religion, too, was the product of this barbarism. Granting that there were here and there leaders who saw beyond it, there were never enough of them to meet the needs of human society. Therefore I cannot see why people should expect the Church to be better than the conditions surrounding the Church. In a society where there is any amount of suspicion and tribalism, you cannot have an enlightened and democratic religion.

Let us consider just what is the function of the Church to-day. Almost all people are agreed that one chief purpose of the Church is to foster, cherish and educate people to the great ideals of the human race. There is no other institution which so emphatically stands

for the idealism of the world. It has always more or less feebly performed this function. Even in the darkest times it kept before men's minds the question of right living and the underlying principles of government.

For this emphasis, the whole world is immensely indebted to a small group of people, who, in their highest religious life gave concrete expression to the ideals of justice, of neighborliness and of fair play between buyer and seller, and employer and employed. These principles are voiced in the books of Leviticus and Deuteronomy, and later in the utterances of the prophets.

What more beautiful ideal of the good and noble woman's life can there be than that splendid passage in Proverbs about the good wife and housekeeper? The story of Nehemiah is the highest conception of the public man of courage and intelligence. The chief value of the New Testament books, too, is the setting forth of universal ideals. Paul proclaims the ideal of love and charity in such a passage as

the thirteenth chapter of Corinthians. Here is something which will live forever. The characters portrayed in the little books and letters which constitute the New Testament are types of the life which gives itself for human service. The ideal of Jesus, who "came to minister, not to be ministered unto," is expressed in the saying, "It is more blessed to give than to receive."

There is the key to everything which social workers are trying to do. It shows that life in its highest sense does not consist merely in serving others from a sense of duty, but life itself is a normal flow from within, outward. The perennial law of life is its outward flow. This is true of religious, artistic and intellectual life. He is happy who pours out his life in service. This principle becomes the great primal law in regard to the conception of wealth. You must give the equivalent in service for that which you receive in wealth. When still a child, I remember hearing my father talk about how much one has the right to spend

on one's self. He held that we are trustees for all that we possess. We do not give sufficient attention to the big issues involved in our little self-indulgences. What right have we to any expenditure that does not eventuate in a richer social life?

A second function of the Church is to set forth the ideal of the Perfect Commonwealth, which means the kind of state we would ultimately like to live in. This ideal, like all other ideals, is universal, for no perfect commonwealth can thrive in the midst of imperfect or barbarous states. No nation, however good, can really live apart from the rest. We must share our ideals and see that they thrive everywhere in the world.

Underlying the idealism of the world and the social relations of man to man is the thought of a ruling life which we often call "God." The modern Church is coming to almost a new thought of this ruling life. In former times God was considered a demon who wanted prayers and sacrifice. What has the thought

of God come to mean to us to-day? We think of Him as a Force which is fashioning us through continuous spiritual evolution after His own image and is making us more human and sympathetic, yearning, like Himself, for service rather than sacrifice. The thought of an infinite Goodness which cares for us brings us into accord with life. As the little electric motor is again and again refreshed and re-enforced with power from the universal sources, so we look to God, the source of life, for strength and encouragement. The motor will not long go by itself; there comes a time when it must be renewed and vitalized. This is our working conception of the power and life which is at the heart of the world. Every-one who wants to do his work most effectively, and at the same time with steadfastness and tranquillity of mind, must ever be reënforced from the great source of life.

The most wonderful thought of the ruling life of the world is that of the intelligent will. Our wills must be in harmony with this Good

Will. As children of the universe, we all are naturally possessed of good will in varying degrees, and we are at the height of our power when our good will flows out freely and floods the world in which we live.

By coming together with people of like minds and by catching a sense of the spiritual wealth of the world, refreshed by the mighty and common purpose of the perfection of human society, helped by music and the friendly atmosphere of the Church, we have a stronger enthusiasm for our work. Many of us are working against conditions which seem peculiarly difficult; we are meeting people who have had hard luck and have been overcome by the circumstances of life. We need to have our lives reënforced with a lot of enthusiasm for our work, and also with the sense of faith and trust that our work is worth while. We are not simply drifting on a raft, the only people in sight in a hopeless gloom; we are voyaging on a ship, through sun and storm alike, ready and fearless; we all have a share in the work.

There is no final wreckage. All our work done in good will is worth while. This splendid sense of an overruling Life, in us, with us and through us, brings us to the greatest efficiency and enthusiasm.

The Church and social workers may well cooperate. Their aim is precisely the same today. They strive for human welfare. Their purpose is the raising of all society to the highest terms. This is the art of civilizing the world; that is, to help the people of the world to live together on terms of good will. This is the aim of Church workers and social workers. In this view, all work belongs to one great series. No work is higher than another. We are all involved together in one great world order. This order is the same for those who have social ideals for the uplifting of the people, as it is for the Church, with its grand intent to plan and promulgate ideals and to establish men's faith in the integrity of the universe and in the eternal life upon which our lives rest.

There is a theory that the Church should undertake to do various kinds of social work as a Church. In certain exceptional circumstances this might be necessary. For example, in certain communities the minister who wished to help the community would begin by using his own Church people and the church buildings. When we get rid of sectarianism, this might be permanently possible. But it certainly is not necessary or desirable at present to make the Church itself the center of social work. It is enough if the members, drawing their inspiration from one source and being assured that their work is worth while, as if under divine command, are cordially interested together in every kind of social work, and if then, in their various occupations—some in carrying on honest business, some as officers of the government of the city or state, some as teachers or educators, some looking specially after the poor and the sick, all as good friends and neighbors—each in his way tries to perfect the life of the community.

I believe that all the people who come to a church should not only be inspired by its ideals but they should clearly understand them. The average member of a church is too busy to be a social worker, but the whole group should have plenty of sympathy with those who are doing such work. In a real church there should be, here and there, those who like Judge Baker of the Juvenile Court of Boston, are the most helpful men in the Church, and at the same time, being filled with the spirit of social service, exemplify the idea of the Church in a special way. There should be a large number of people who might be called upon, from time to time, to do some extra work, and who would be only too glad of the chance of doing a bit of social service. If a church had a good number of such people with the heartiness, the enthusiasm and the sympathy that characteristically belong to the Church, the people outside would begin to come in to see what was happening in the Church. We should soon be raising up helpers in good government and in

every kind of social service. The world would naturally look to the Church for its teaching and inspiration and also for the most effective helpers. Such a church would work harmoniously with other churches of whatever name. The more the Church comes to see that it exists for its ideals more than its dogmas, the more it is permeated by the social spirit, the nearer we come to the death of sectarianism.

I believe that parents are in special need of the Church in the care of children. They need to receive into their lives precisely those ideals which the Church stands for—the sense of duty and responsibility, the obligation of a clean life, the loyalty of husbands and wives, of parents to children, and of children to parents.

A large part of the children of every great city, both rich and poor, suffer for the want of helpful chores, by the doing of which the ideals of loyalty, fidelity and friendship may be strengthened. We American people are very generous with our amusements. We think the children are so hard worked at school

that they have no time for tasks. But from such tasks come some of the most precious lessons of love and faith, responsibility and duty.

In undertaking the religious education of children the Church tries too hard to do a kind of work for which it is not fitted. The foundations of fine character cannot be laid in Sunday School, but rather in the homes and especially through loyal-hearted mothers, who, touched by the spirit of the Church, are quietly passing over the best of their traditions and ideals to their children. The good parents are the highest products of the Church.

To inspire a few people to do social service is not nearly so great as to inspire hundreds of fathers and mothers to lead such good lives that their children can hardly help growing up to noble and useful lives.

Suggested Reading:

Dole, Charles F. The Ethics of Progress. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Company, 1909.

Dole, Charles F. The Coming People. New Edition. The World Peace Foundation, 1914.

CHAPTER XX

RELIGION AND SOCIAL SERVICE

By Rabbi Harry Levi

TEMPLE ADATH ISRAEL

CHAPTER XX

RELIGION AND SOCIAL SERVICE

"There is no religion . . . which does not say 'Do good and avoid evil.' There is none which does not contain what Rabbi Hillel called the quintessence of all religions, the simple 'Be good my boy.' 'Be good my boy' may seem a very short catechism; but let us add to it, 'Be good my boy for God's sake,' and we have in it very nearly the whole of the Law and the Prophets."

Religion is not life, but life issuing from a specific belief, creed expressing itself in deed, profession evolving into practice. To be religious is to believe in a Higher Power to whom we are related, through whom we are here, and because of whom definite moral obligations rest upon us. It is to believe in a Power that not only "makes for righteousness," but de-

mands of us that righteous living that will help Him make righteousness universal, that commands us to measure up to the moral standards He sets us "to be good" for His sake, for the sake of His universe, that His plan for the progress of life shall be realized. To be religious is to believe in a God who is Father of all, who guides the destinies of all, and loves them all equally.

Yet if a common bond unites them to a Higher Power, that same bond relates them to each other, imposes mutual responsibilities upon them, and makes each the concern of the rest. To be religious is to be not only moral but serviceable, not only clean but helpful, not only to "be good" but to "do good." It is to serve man, society, for "God's sake." Social service is thus of the very essence of religion.

This truth is not a late discovery. It was a working principle even in Bible times. However large a part sacrifice and worship played in religion, social service was always recognized as a fundamental feature of religious life.

To give to the poor, to provide for the widow and orphan, to assist the unfortunate, was counted not only a necessary feature but almost the highest expression of religiousness. Men were to give not only to alleviate suffering, but also to please God. The needy were viewed not merely as the children of God, equally with those who were more fortunate; they were considered His special charges. He who wronged them should suffer. He who helped should be rewarded. Nor could this service have been defined as almsgiving. To care for the needy was not charity but justice. Society was responsible for its unfortunate.

Thus a measure of the provision for those who fell by the way was incorporated in the law of the land. When the needy gathered the gleanings of the field they did not beg. They took that to which by law they were entitled. They were not to be shamed. What they required they were to receive as their due. "Blessed is he who" not only "giveth" but

"considereth the poor." He who wished to be religious was not to wait for the poor to knock on his door. "The cause of him whom I knew not I searched out," said Job, summing up his justification. "Thou shalt draw out thy soul to the hungry." "If thy brother wax poor and his hand fail him, thou shalt assist him that he may live with thee" and "thou shalt loose the bands of wickedness, undo the heavy burdens, let the oppressed go free, break every yoke, deal thy bread to the hungry, bring the poor that are cast out to thy home, when thou seest the naked, cover him and hide not thyself from thine own flesh." Could social service arrange a more pretentious programme? Yet in Bible days this programme was an integral part of religion.

Religion and Church are not synonyms. There are unchurched men and women who are deeply religious, and church members to whom real religion is unknown. "Religion," says Bishop Williams, "has outgrown the Church." The Church is but an organized ex-

pression of religion which reaches beyond its ranks. Yet if social service is vital to religion, it is necessary to the Church which is but one of its witnesses. No denomination, no congregation is religious which does not in some way give itself to the service of society, which does not practice what it preaches, which does not concern itself with the real welfare of the people, which places dogma above life and counts piety of more consequence than service.

Why does the Church find it so difficult to attract the workingman? Because he feels that it does not sympathize with him in his demands for industrial justice, that in the conflict that is on it is not his friend. In the earlier days when Democracy was born the pulpit often took the side of Monarchy and during our own Civil War frequently attempted to justify slavery. How familiar is the complaint that the Church is the ally of Vested Interest, that it is so conservative that it has no sympathy with the New Spirit, and declines to take a hand in the complex prob-

lems that are now vexing us, because it counts them beyond its jurisdiction. Where this is true, the Church is not keeping pace with religion. For all these matters concern the salvation of Society even more than the doctrinal beliefs which they entertain. The Church that is a stranger to social service cannot justify itself.

Fortunately this estrangement exists in but the fewest of instances. Historically the Church was always concerned with social service. Indeed, for centuries it monopolized the field. And while to-day the monopoly no longer continues, the traditional interest is sustained. Few Churches are wanting in some form of active work aiming at a betterment of social conditions. Much of what was once the exclusive programme of the Church has been assumed by other organizations. Yet the Church still remains a vital part of the widespread movement making for righteousness and human happiness.

To what extent should the Church engage in

social service? There is but one answer—to the extent of its capacity. There must be no other limit. In every way it must coöperate with other organizations engaged in kindred effort. But there are times when it may be able to achieve better results through denominational than undenominational channels. Denominational social service is said to know no warrant. But if Goethe was right when he said that "to love we must know" then it is equally true that "to help we must know." And he can best help who knows best. The best interpreter of a people is one born among them, and the next best, he who has lived among them until he has become if not of their flesh and blood, at least of their spirit. It takes an immigrant or one of immigrant birth to understand the immigrant. No native-born can get into the soul of the refugee from other lands until he has touched elbows with him for years. And until he knows his soul he cannot permanently aid him. That is why social workers in congested districts should, whenever possible,

be of the nativity and faith of those among whom they labor. Even denominational social settlements like denominational charities are not without justification.

If social service is a necessary expression of religion, then religion is a vital condition of social service. There are people who believe that all the philanthropic work of a community should be assumed by the state which should levy a tax for this purpose on all the people. There are those who make a religion of charity and proffer their interest in it as a substitute for religious worship. There are churches which, carried away by the new social spirit, have become almost exclusively social centers and charitable societies.

Yet for social service, as for moral conduct, we need not only religious sanction, but religious impulse. Without it, philanthropic enterprise, dependent on individual inclination, lacks certainty and permanence. To-day it expresses itself eloquently and enthusiastically, and to-morrow it may altogether cease to be,

since it recognizes no higher imperative which it is in duty bound to obey. If the Fatherhood of God means the Brotherhood of man, then the recognition of a human brotherhood that makes mutual service compulsory and not optional must spring from a realization of a common human relationship to a Higher Power. Besides, ethical interest, unrelated to religious spirit, is apt to lack the warmth, the enthusiasm, the driving power, which can alone make for that utter devotion to a cause, that readiness to do and dare and die in its behalf, if need be, to make real sacrifice, without which in the last analysis every cause must suffer.

It is no coincidence that most social workers either belong to the Church or have received from it the inspiration responsible for their consecration. Religion urges them on, and blesses them with vision and courage and strength and hope. Faith makes them an intimate part of the cause and the people they serve.

Religion indeed serves the cause of social service in two ways. On the part of the worker it means equipment that increases personal capacity and reduces the trying influence of difficulty. While to those for and among whom he labors, it means that self-control, that stability of character, that optimism, which makes poverty and the hardships that usually accompany it less dangerous, the preservation of high moral standards in low environment more assured, and the possibility of eventually bettering material conditions more promising. How often social workers have confessed that if only their charges were more religious, if only the immigrants among whom they work retained, after their arrival here, the faith they knew across the water, the task of helping them would be largely simplified. The tragedy indeed of the life of those who need the social worker is, that deeply religious as they are when they arrive here, their faith so frequently fails to survive the adjustment to new environment. When their faith goes they are lost.

This explains why the ideal social worker does all he can to preserve or restore the faith of the men, women and especially the children in whom he is interested.

How is this to be accomplished? If his lines are cast among those of his own belief, the answer is clear. But what if he works among those of other faiths? The last desire of a social worker must be to try to impose his creed on those who, however weak in their faith, were born in another church. Social service must aim at moral and spiritual regeneration, but never at theological conversion. There is good in every religion; God has wholly denied Himself to none of them; all men are His children, blessed with something of His spirit and revelation. And he who fails to recognize these truths is unfit to be trusted with social service among those who are not of his denomination. Besides, the best religion for any man is the faith of his birth and that is the faith the "servant of Jehovah" and of man should seek to conserve for him.

I have in mind a social settlement conducting an ethical school where the teachers must be of the faith of the children they teach, though this faith differs from that of the men who guide the institution's destinies; another settlement where, whenever religious holidays arrive, a minister of the faith to which the children belong is invited to address them; a group of social workers who, whenever particularly perplexed by a case in hand, seek the counsel and assistance of a minister of the Church to which the individual or family in question belong, or did belong; and a single worker who is studying painstakingly the forms, the faith, the language of those with whom she has cast her lot, that she may be the better able to understand them and to lend a helping hand in maintaining their religious equilibrium.

Religion and social service are interdependent. But what of the relation of religion to that systematized expression of social service known as "Organized Charity?" As already suggested, time was when the Church had prac-

tically complete control of the philanthropic field. Nor, though it concerned itself largely with problems of material relief, could its efforts be said to have been unorganized. But of the methods and the efficiency of the highly developed charitable agencies of our day, it knew little. Indeed when it was first urged that charitable work should be placed on a business basis the Church declined to respond sympathetically.

Organized religion is a conservative institution that seldom smiles on innovation. Besides it was felt that the new plan, by removing the traditional contact between giver and recipient, would eliminate that personal service which is the finest feature of charitable work. But as a matter of fact personal service is an indispensable element in the newer charity. Nor need system and sentiment be incompatible. I love my child no less, rather more, because I use reason in planning for his welfare.

The Church also insisted that as soon as

Charity employed business methods and was entrusted to professional hands, a large percentage of its income would be expended for administrative instead of relief purposes. But if proper administration can produce large results; if it can reduce the grievousness and extent of poverty by removing some of its causes; if it can make it possible, by expert investigation and guidance, for men in need to help themselves, instead of compelling them to become permanent dependents; if it can by trained vision and capacity lessen the proportionate number of applicants and the per capita expenditure for material relief, is it not justifying itself as an agency, at once of service and economy?

Whatever the attitude of the Church, religion must invoke on Organized Charity only unconditioned blessing. For Organized Charity aims to make society better and happier and this is essentially the purpose of religion. If to help men is to achieve the end of religion, then the more effective the service, the

more religious. Why should it be religious to make a pauper out of a man and not religious to make a man out of a pauper? Why should the sanction of religion be granted to material relief, and be denied to that service that makes material relief unnecessary? Why should it be granted to a gift of money and withheld from that gift of guidance, of interest and of encouragement which will place an unfortunate upon his feet and help him help himself? Why should it be accounted religious to destroy and to kill, and irreligious to rebuild and to save? Grant the needs of the body; what of the needs of the soul?

Social service (and organized charity is but an expression of it, though its best developed and most effective expression) seeks to preserve not merely the flesh but the spirit, not simply a part, but the whole of the individual, that which is divine in him, his personality, and in so doing it is furthering the cause of religion.

Carlyle believed with the Benedictine monks,

that "to labor is to pray." Canon Barnett would have defined religion as "Worship and Work." What else had Micah in mind when he urged his people to "do justice, love mercy and walk humbly with God" or Jeremiah when he said "Let us lift up our hearts and our hands to God"? What is religion but service not merely church but social, a service that is at once human and divine, that realizes the desire of God by furthering the interests of man? To achieve this service, that is to be religious, is to give, but to receive in turn; to scatter, but to increase; to bless and be blessed.

Suggested Reading:

Mathews, Shailer. The Social Gospel. Philadelphia: The Griffith and Rowland Press, 1910.

Taylor, Graham. Religion in Social Action. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1913.

SUPPLEMENT I

SALARIED POSITIONS IN SOCIAL WORK

SALARIED POSITIONS IN SOCIAL WORK

PREFACE

This bulletin has been prepared under the joint auspices of the Department for Social Workers of the Intercollegiate Bureau of Occupations and the Student Department of the International Committee of Young Men's Christian Associations. The Department for Social Workers offers its services as a clearing house concerning positions and workers, both men and women, throughout the country.

The student secretaries of the Young Men's Christian Association constantly come into relations with upper-class men in the colleges and universities who express a desire to go into some form of altruistic service allied to that of the Church. Out of the experience of these

two organizations there emerged the need of a definite and reliable statement of opportunities in social work. This bulletin is the result.

Social work needs able leaders of religious spirit in ever greater numbers and college men need to know of all opportunities in social service which provide a real profession at a living salary. This bulletin presents only some of these opportunities, yet shows an array of approximately forty-five types of salaried positions. It is suggestive rather than comprehensive and is intended to quicken interest as well as to inform. It will serve its purpose if it leads some young men who might not otherwise go into any form of altruistic effort to make serious preparation for such service.

MARGARET F. BYINGTON,
Social Workers Department, Intercollegiate Bureau of Occupations.

RICHARD H. EDWARDS,
Student Department, International Committee Young Men's Christian Associations.

PUBLIC RECREATION

The administration of public facilities for recreation has, within the last five years, advanced from voluntary work under citizens' committees to civil service positions under established city departments. To provide and maintain children's playgrounds, recreation centers in field houses and school buildings, athletic fields, and swimming pools has come to be generally recognized as a legitimate and necessary function of municipalities. Rural communities are also, in many instances, providing these advantages at public expense.

Twenty-two States have made provision by law for playground and recreation commissions or city departments, for the use of school buildings and grounds for recreation purposes, and for public funds with which to equip, maintain, and supervise the recreation centers.

In 1912, 285 cities throughout the United States maintained playgrounds and recreation centers under paid supervision, and 58 other

cities under volunteer workers, making a total of 343 cities in which recreation facilities were provided; 2,094 playgrounds and recreation centers were in operation and 5,320 workers were employed. Of this number about two-fifths were men. Sixty-three cities employed recreation workers throughout the whole year. A total expenditure of $4,020,121.79 was reported by the 285 cities.

In 33 cities recreation commissions directed this work; in 51 cities playground associations; in 35 cities school boards; in 32 cities park boards; and in 12 cities the work was under the direction of special departments of the city government.

The positions in this field open to men are:

1. Superintendent of Recreation or Recreation Secretary for a city system.

This position involves general administration, including construction and equipment of buildings and grounds, organization and promotion of the activities, and the direction of the supervisory force. It is analogous to the

superintendency of public schools. The salaries range from $1,200 to $5,000.

2. Department or District Supervisor.

This position is in reality that of assistant superintendent, and has to do either with the work in given sections of the city or with special lines of activity. The salaries range from $600 to $2,400 per year.

3. Director.

This is the title given to the person in charge of an individual center, which may be a playground or a recreation building, or both. The position is analogous to that of principal of a school. Salaries are from $600 to $2,000 per year.

4. Play Leader.

In this position one comes into immediate relation with the children in organizing and leading the games and other activities. Salaries vary from $40 per month to $1,400 per year.

Special training in conducting games and organizing athletic activities is necessary for the play leaders. In addition to this, those in the

supervisory positions should have a knowledge of child psychology, should know the best methods of playground construction and equipment, and be familiar with the prevailing plans of playground administration, and should have a broad training in sociology.

Correspondence may be had with the Playground and Recreation Association of America, 1 Madison Avenue, New York City, in regard to training courses for playground workers and the openings for employment in the recreation field.

Lee F. Hanmer,
Director of Division of Recreation Russell Sage Foundation, New York.

SOCIAL SETTLEMENTS

There are now some four hundred settlement houses in the United States. The settlements are started in communities which are otherwise lacking in responsible and resourceful citizens. They undertake work for the improvement of conditions affecting physical and moral health,

for the training and launching of boys and girls for useful careers in life, and for the supply and direction of all sorts of wholesome recreation. Close relations are maintained with the home and neighborhood life of the people, on the one hand, and with all broad efforts for social progress in city and State on the other. The different residents are affiliated with the local religious agencies of their choice. The settlements of a city are coming to be federated for purposes of organized consultation and action on a large scale.

There are several kinds of opportunities available for men. The head resident is the leader in the life and work of the settlement as a whole, assigning the duties of the different residents and associate workers, seeing that the different branches of work mutually reinforce one another, keeping the house in sound relation with public interests, caring for its financial affairs, and laying out plans for the future. The salaries of head workers range from $1,500 to $3,500.

The assistant head worker sees to the detailed carrying out of the settlement programme, keeps in close and continuous relation with the leaders of all the various organizations which are under the settlement auspices, and attends to the efficient working of all the specific services of the settlement in its community. Salaries for this position range from $1,000 to $2,000.

The director of work among boys has charge of clubs and classes for older boys, directs their athletic interests, leads their summer vacation outings, follows them up in their homes, cooperates with their teachers, and helps them in their problems of employment. Salaries for such service range from $1,000 to $2,000.

Residents in training spend a year in study and practice before being assigned any administrative responsibility. Some settlements provide allowances or fellowship stipends of from $300 to $600 for the training period.

In some of the larger settlements there are other special opportunities for men in the way

of constructive social service, sometimes wholly within the scope of the settlement itself, but more often resulting from the coöperation of the settlement with other agencies.

The demand for men of training, initiative and devotion in settlement and allied forms of work is much greater than the supply, and is constantly increasing. Aside from long-range opportunities in the settlement itself, settlement experience is recognized as a valuable preliminary to all other forms of social work.

Robert A. Woods,
Secretary of the National Federation of Settlements, South End House, Boston, Mass.

ORGANIZING CHARITY

An Associated Charities or Charity Organization Society first takes up the problems of dependent families, that is, those applying for assistance. It is not a simple relief society, but a society which through investigation and the working out of carefully considered plans

(which may include relief as an item in them) endeavors to make families self-dependent. It coöperates with all existing societies and institutions in effecting this purpose and is a central coördinating society in this field. But more than this, it is expressly pledged to strive to remove the social causes of misery, sickness, and degeneration which it discovers as a result of its work with families. Sometimes it carries on the movements necessary for changing these conditions itself. In other instances, its task is to arouse other societies or groups of people to undertake responsibilities in this direction. It is therefore the central coördinating society both with reference to the work done with families in their homes and also in the field of many community social movements. In the smaller cities it is often the only important agency in the field. In the larger cities there are, of course, many agencies which are working out special social programmes. But the general secretary is often associated with them through serving upon their boards.

SALARIED POSITIONS

Three general types of positions are open to men:

1. The general secretaryship of societies in the larger cities, the duties of which are the supervision over the work as a whole, the representation of the society before the community, and the larger organization problems. The salaries run from $1,500 to $4,000.

2. The assistant secretaryship involves immediate supervision of family work and administrative details, at salaries of $1,200 to $2,400.

3. Financial secretaryships offer opportunities for propaganda and financial work at salaries from $1,500 to $3,000.

4. Secretaryships of special committees, such as those on the homeless man, tuberculosis, the betterment of social conditions, and so forth, at salaries ranging from $1,200 to $2,400.

At least a year's previous experience in working with families and contact with organization and coöperation work is needed as preparation for these positions. Two years' ex-

perience is usually necessary before taking a position as general secretary, but financial secretaries and secretaries of special committees have secured their training in allied fields. Special training in a school of philanthropy is highly desirable.

There are ample opportunities for men in these fields. There is scarcely a time when one or two places are not open. Promising secretaries are moved up rapidly and there is no question about the opportunities for advancement for those who display ability. Our workers are frequently called into the tuberculosis field, into the field of child-helping agencies, and sometimes into probation work. The playground people have just taken one of our best secretaries for their national work. Within the last ten days two cities, one with a population of 120,000 and the other of 35,000, have asked for general secretaries for reorganized societies. The smaller wanted a man, young but with demonstrated experience, at $1,500 to $1,800, and the other a man at

$2,500. As a rule the man who is just to be tried out in an independent command cannot expect more than $1,500 as a starting salary, but salaries are very frequently raised after the first year.

Correspondence may be had with the American Association of Societies for Organizing Charity or with the Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation.

FRANCIS H. MCLEAN,
Secretary American Association of Societies for Organizing Charity, New York.

DEPENDENT CHILDREN

The care of dependent children in the 1,152 institutions and by the 212 societies of the United States calls for the best efforts of capable men and women. From the days when the almshouse was the only publicly maintained refuge in the United States for the orphan child, the blind child, the deaf and dumb child, and the crippled child, as well as for all poor, sick, diseased, and imbecile men and women,

to 1910, when 156,711 dependent children had been separated, not only from dependent adults, but also from deaf and blind children and children who need other forms of care, is a far cry.

Along with this separation came, as methods of giving care, first orphan asylums of the so-called congregate type; afterward children's aid societies and children's home societies to place homeless children in foster homes; and still later institutions made up of groups of cottages in each of which the children with a house mother live—a home life similar to that of the natural family. Besides this private care there also is growing up in many States, not only a system of public institutions and agencies for the care of dependents at State expense, but also State bureaus or agents to supervise and to standardize the work of all the private children's agencies in the State.

In addition to the problem of food and clothes which everybody thinks of as the first needs of a homeless child, these children also

all need education in books and in vocations; they need love, sympathy, religious instruction, amusement and recreation—just as children in natural and unbroken homes need all these things. In other words, there is a growing recognition of the fact that the care of dependent children demands men and women who have qualities of good parents, who are educators, experts in vocational training, familiar with sound ideas and methods in amusement and recreation, and able to pass on to homeless boys and girls the inner and sacred meanings of a socialized religion.

Besides these qualities required by the human problem of the children themselves, there is also required in most of these positions business ability of no mean order to secure and expend the funds necessary for the work in hand. A further ability in the field of practical and idealistic politics is likewise becoming more essential, to the end that far-sighted constructive programmes in behalf of dependent and neglected children may be adopted. In short,

there is a full-sized man's job in the position of superintendent of an orphan asylum, as head of a children's aid society, as executive secretary of a children's home society for placing children in foster homes, as the head of a municipal or State bureau in care of dependent children, and as State agent for the standardization and supervision of the work of all private agencies for the care of dependent children in a State.

These positions demand as high types of men in natural ability and education as are found among the leaders in elementary, secondary, and higher education, in medicine, the ministry, the law, politics and business. The problem is not merely that of a month or a year or two of the lives of children; it is the problem of determining the whole trend and ideas, and also the conditions for the attainment of these ideals, for the procession of dependent children that are always marching toward a future of inefficiency and crime, or, on the other hand, toward a future of self-sup-

port, homes of their own, and good citizenship.

The opportunities to work for dependent children range all the way from those of attendants, teachers, and business assistants in institutions, and from field agents in child-placing and children's aid societies, to secretaries and superintendents in charge. Services also vary from performance of routine duties to those of leadership in education, practical politics and public opinion, as has already been suggested.

Rewards likewise vary from a minimum wage to those salaries which obtain in colleges and all but the exceptional cases in law, medicine, and business, $900 to $5,000. As in other fields, there are not enough of the best men to go around. Good men pass easily from work for dependent children into other forms of social work.

Genuine work for dependent children brings a reasonable wage for the day's work. The worker may live on the growing edge of things

in his generation, and, besides, his work has an aroma of romance about it, as it is the twentieth century form of chivalry. Correspondence may be addressed to Dr. Hastings H. Hart, 105 East 22d Street, New York.

HENRY W. THURSTON,
Lecturer in Child Welfare, New York School of Philanthropy.

NEGLECTED CHILDREN

The Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children.

The Humane Society.

The Children's Aid Society.

Under these and other names there are numerous organizations, aside from the regular governmental agencies, which deal with the neglected and dependent child.

The Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children seeks to protect children, whose natural parents or guardians do not do so, from being cruelly beaten or otherwise physically abused, from being exposed to various

kinds of moral or physical neglect, from being exploited in any way for gain, or from being abandoned or not properly supported by those who are charged by law with their maintenance. These societies rescue children from vicious or immoral surroundings, and if necessary cause the arrest and prosecution of offenders.

The Humane Society carries on a double work, adding to the prevention of cruelty to children the prevention of cruelty to animals also.

The Children's Aid Society, or Children's Home Society, or Children's Friend Society, as it may be called, concerns itself with the placement of children in family homes, after the child through misfortune or otherwise has been deprived of its own natural home. Not only must proper homes be discovered, investigated and approved, but after the placement of the child in the home, his development must be followed by wise and tactful supervision.

The work of these various organizations is

not always sharply differentiated and there are at present varying types and standards. Of late a distinct tendency toward the consolidation of all child-helping functions in one organization has been apparent. Such a society would become practically the center of a non-institutional work for children in its community. Positions open to men range from that of superintendent or general agent down through various grades of special agents and investigators. To the superintendent or general agent belong the duties of management on a large scale, planning the campaign and directing the work of the organization and making it effective in the community. Special agents may be assigned to particular tasks, such as the direction of work in a given section of the field or the handling of the legal work. Salaries range from $1,000 to $5,000. General qualifications needed are integrity of character and the ability to analyze situations, to do constructive thinking from the standpoint of the child's future welfare, and to start

things moving in the direction decided upon. Legal training is a great advantage.

The opportunities for advancement in this field are large. This type of work is just now passing through interesting changes. Policies long held are giving way before newer ideals. New standards are being set up. Men who can furnish leadership for these readjustments can work out for themselves places of large influence and opportunity for service in the cause of the children.

As these organizations awaken to their opportunities, positions should be open with increasing frequency. Just now a State organization is looking for a man to organize the entire State. One city of over half a million population has just called a man to take charge of its work. Places as special agents or investigators are nearly always open, and furnish opportunities for training and experience which open the way for the larger positions.

Correspondence may be directed to C. C. Carstens, Massachusetts Society for the Pre-

vention of Cruelty to Children, 43 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston, Mass., or to the secretaries of similiar societies in other large cities.

A. B. Williams, Jr.,
Secretary Humane Society, Cleveland, Ohio.

INSTITUTIONS FOR DELINQUENT CHILDREN

Schools for delinquent children are now conducted in almost every State. Many of the States maintain several, including Houses of Refuge and Parental schools for backward and truant children. Such schools were little known in America half a century ago, and for several decades after their introduction into this country they were merely backward schools for backward and wayward children. Their equipment was primitive, their revenues were inadequate and the earlier buildings bore a strong resemblance to prisons. Historically, they were an off-shoot of the prison system and borrowed some of its traditions.

Within twenty years there has been a

marked evolution of ideals and methods, and to-day these schools represent a most effective experiment in the domain of education. They are accomplishing much fruitful work. Their equipment and standards are approaching those of the private boarding schools. They have full control of the children twenty-four hours a day and thus the entire round of educational effort must be compassed. They perform that work which, in a normal community, is done by home and school and church and shop. The problem is one which is correctly termed "integral education" and is rendered complex by the fact that the primary object is to reshape the warped character and mind of the child.

The children are committed by juvenile courts.

As a rule, such schools are under State control. In New York State, however—and the same is true in Maryland and in Eastern Pennsylvania—private corporations operate schools under charters granted by the State.

A variety of positions offer opportunities to men who are willing to work for the general welfare.

1. Membership on boards of directors. The privately controlled schools affiliate as many men of philanthropic motives as possible, but inasmuch as the directors serve without compensation, the positions usually fall to those who have acquired the administrative ability or to those whose contributions are along the lines of personal and missionary effort.

The directors of State institutions are appointed by the State executives. Too frequently these positions go to those upon whom a Governor wishes to bestow a "blue ribbon" as a mark of recognition for one reason or another. Still, in recent years the Governors of States are more and more leaving the personal equation out of account and making appointments for fitness alone.

2. Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents. Each school has one of the

former and one or two of the latter. They are the executive officers and give to the work its direction and to the school its tone and standing. The salaries range from $1,200 to $5,000, plus maintenance.

3. Placing-out representatives, who seek homes in which to place the children of these schools and who visit the children in such homes; also chief clerks, cottage masters and instructors in manual training. Salaries range from $500 to $1,200, plus maintenance.

The experience needed as preparation for these positions must be gained in the schools themselves. As a rule, a young man cannot profitably serve an apprenticeship elsewhere. It is a field in which "generals are made of faithful captains." A young man may begin as an assistant and will most certainly advance to a higher grade within two years, if he is not a misfit. If he has enthusiasm of purpose, coupled with conscientious and laborious attention to details, he will rise, in time, to the most responsible positions. There is a deal of

drudgery in the subordinate positions and of responsibility in the higher positions, and those who are lacking in the ordinary elements of effectiveness would do well to avoid this field.

Positions are frequently open in such schools and applicants should correspond with the boards of control or with the superintendents.

CHARLES D. HILLES,
President New York Juvenile Asylum.

JUVENILE PROBATION

The probation work of a juvenile court touches every phase of community life, and usually every aspect of the court's work. Its essential is the adjustment of misdirected boys and girls to normal habits of life—by educational processes for the individual and by readjustments in home, neighborhood, school and employment.

Two positions in the larger cities are open to men—the chief probation officer, who has the direction of the probation work; and the assistant probation officer, who has charge of

certain children assigned to him by the court. The chief probation officer is an "office man"—in attendance at all sessions of court to advise and assist in the handling of all cases. The assistant probation officer is an "outside man"—working in a particular neighborhood or with a scattered group of children.

The position of chief probation officer pays from $1,200 to $3,500, the amount largely determined by the size of the community and the stability of the court as an accepted institution. The position of assistant probation officer pays from $800 to $1,500—in some few cities as much as $1,800.

Considerable previous experience in dealing with children in boys' club work, settlements, boy scout troops, etc., is necessary. Very few courts will accept an untrained man. Most probation officers are recruited from the ranks of social workers in private societies, or among college graduates who have had experience as volunteers in work with boys. A constantly increasing number of positions are being filled

by competitive examinations, in which personality and experience play the largest part.

Not many positions in the field are open to men who live outside the cities or States in which the court is located. Some few courts seek the men, but most of them have many more applicants than positions. As many of the applicants are not highly qualified an able man interested in the work should have no difficulty in securing an appointment, either through competitive examination or direct from the court.

There are no opportunities for advancement in the court beyond the position of chief probation officer, but the work is so closely related to all social and civic movements, that the training and experience may be considered a logical preparation for even larger service in almost any public or private social service agency.

Further information may be obtained by addressing Arthur W. Towne, the Capitol, Albany, Secretary of the National Probation

Association, or Miss Julia Lathrop of the Federal Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C.

ROGER BALDWIN,
Secretary of the Civic League, St. Louis.

PROBATION FOR ADULTS

The two chief duties of a probation officer dealing with adult offenders are, first, to investigate the history, character and circumstances of persons arrested or convicted by the court in which the probation officer serves; second, to befriend, aid and look after those placed on probation. The aims of probation are essentially reformatory, constructive and helpful. Imprisonment, the imposition of fines, and release under suspended sentence with or without police surveillance, have proven unsuitable and unwise for most persons who have just entered upon evil ways. Experience is proving that a far more effective as well as more economical method of treatment in such cases is the friendly oversight and guidance, the practical aid, and the

firm but kindly restraint offered by probation. The use of the probation system, which is still in the process of development, is bound to increase greatly, and to afford more and more openings for experienced, competent probation officers.

The probation officer ordinarily requires those on probation to make personal reports at stated intervals during the probationary period (which varies from a few months to two years); but his time is spent chiefly in visiting the homes of those on probation, in inquiring from other sources as to their conduct and associations, in seeing that they are properly employed and avoid harmful practices, and in enlisting the coöperation and assistance of various other persons and agencies in the community.

Probation for adults is most extensively applied to young men and young women convicted for the first time of misdemeanors, to non-supporting husbands, occasional drunkards and young women just entered upon im-

moral ways. The suitability of probation depends, however, not so much upon the particular offense, as upon the habits, surroundings and previous record of the offender. For this reason, it is not infrequently employed with excellent results in cases of those convicted of felonies. The class of probationers placed under any one officer depends upon the court in which the officer serves. In many places the probation officers deal with both adults and children. It is customary to limit the work of men officers to cases of men, and that of women officers to cases of women.

There are two general types of positions:

A. Chief probation officer in large communities. The duties include, or may entirely consist of, developing approved case methods, securing, training and supervising other probation officers (both salaried and volunteer), organizing efficient office and administrative methods, and studying the needs of the community with respect to the prevention and the treatment of delinquency. In certain

States the jurisdiction of such an officer may extend outside of the city and include the whole county or district. This position is usually filled by men. The salaries range from $1,000 to $3,000.

B. Probation officer or assistant probation officer. If under a chief probation officer, the duties usually consist almost entirely with individuals on probation. If, however, the position is in a small place having no other salaried officer, the duties include many of those of a chief probation officer. This position is filled by both men and women. The salaries run from $900 to $2,200. As the use of probation becomes more general there will probably be increases in the compensation. The power of appointing probation officers is usually vested in the judges of the courts in which the officers are to serve.

In some States probation officers must be citizens and residents of the localities in which they are appointed, and in certain States (as New York and New Jersey) the positions are

filled through competitive civil service examinations, conducted in part orally and allowing credit for experience and personality. As a rule, however, persons fitted for this work by training or natural aptitude are eligible for appointment (so far as the law is concerned) regardless of their place of residence, though some judges are somewhat prejudiced in favor of local persons. Because probation is comparatively new, it is often necessary to appoint persons who have had no previous experience or training. One who desires to enter this field, however, will find it highly advantageous to have some knowledge of social work such as that gained, for example, through a course in a school of philanthropy, and to have had some practical experience in social work, preferably in case work outside of institutions. Probation officers dealing with adults should be endowed with good health, mental alertness, and an agreeable disposition; able to lead by tactful persuasion, possessed of excellent habits and strength of character,

and preferably, although not necessarily, at least twenty-five years of age and married.

The number of openings for probation officers is not large, but is likely to increase from year to year. A little more than half of the States at present have laws authorizing probation for adults, and the number of States and communities using the system is steadily increasing. Anyone who displays ability and makes a success in probation work may be pretty sure of finding opportunities for advancement, either in the same line or in some related field of social service. A probation officer who measures up to his position is brought into intimate contact with all the social welfare agencies in the community, as well as with all classes of people. He has an excellent chance to study the needs of the community, to mold public opinion, and to promote needed improvements.

Correspondence may be had with the secretary of the National Probation Association, and with the secretaries of the Massachusetts

and the New York State Probation Commissions.

ARTHUR W. TOWNE,
Secretary New York State Probation Commission, Albany.

PRISON REFORM AND PRISON ADMINISTRATION

The problems of delinquency are rapidly coming to the front, and persons expert in dealing with criminals and with problems of criminality are in increasing demand. Two general fields are open for the social worker: (1) Prison administration; (2) Prison reform work.

1. *Prison Administration.* Superintendents and wardens have often been chosen because of political influences. There is an increasing tendency, particularly in reformatories, to choose on the basis of expert experience. Such positions are often under civil service and are filled from the eligible list by boards of managers. They require men of

exceptional ability, who not only have strong personalities, but who understand how to superintend construction work and the many details of office administration. Such positions pay from $3,000 to $5,000 and maintenance. These positions can be the goal of men entering reformatory work from the bottom, or, as psychologists, or assistants. There is great need of a training school for prison officials. In almost all cases positions in prisons and reformatories are competitive.

2. *Prison Reform Work.* This field is rapidly developing, particularly through the growth of prisoners' aid societies. Executive secretaryships, assistant secretaryships, positions as parole or probation officers, are frequently offered. Salaries range from $600 to $1,500 for parole or probation officers, from $1,200 to $2,500 for assistant secretaryships and from $2,500 to $5,000 for general secretaryships.

The prisoners' aid societies of the country

are in general still undeveloped and are looking for strong men with initiative to add to their ranks. Almost half of the States of the Union have still no prisoners' aid societies. The growth of such societies during the next twenty years will be considerable.

ORLANDO F. LEWIS,
General Secretary Prison Association of New York.

HOUSING

Interest in the improvement of housing conditions has, during the past three years, spread from the half dozen cities which (before 1910) realized that they had a housing problem, to nearly all the progressive cities of the United States and Canada. The work may be divided roughly into two kinds: First, wiping out slums and bringing unfit dwellings up to a wholesome standard; second, providing that new areas shall be properly developed and that new dwellings shall be of good types and of proper construction. To carry on this

work there are several kinds of organizations, the most important of which are:

1. Housing Commissions or Committees, whose chief purpose is educational. They secure and publish information about local conditions and their significance, propose improvements, secure the enactment and enforcement of legislation setting definite standards, etc.

2. Octavia Hill Associations, which manage, either as owners or as agents for owners, houses occupied by the poorer paid wage-earners.

3. Building Associations, which erect, and usually keep the management of, inexpensive dwellings.

The work done by the executive officers of these different kinds of organizations of course varies considerably. The secretary of a Housing Committee must be a good propagandist, must have some ability as a writer and a speaker, be a good mixer and a student

of municipal affairs, as his work will take him among all kinds of people, rich and poor, private citizens and public officials. The secretary of an Octavia Hill Association or of a Building Association should have some practical knowledge of building in addition to his equipment as a social worker. The salaries paid range from $80 to $250 per month.

In all of these fields the worker must have had some technical training before he is of value and, of course, experience adds to his value. The work is still so new that it has not yet become thoroughly organized, but the number and the importance of the positions open to newcomers is constantly increasing. At the present moment there are more positions than there are men qualified to fill them. Nearly all of these are in large cities and the future of the work depends chiefly upon the character, training and ability of the secretary.

Those who wish to take up housing work

should write to the National Housing Association, 105 East 22d Street, New York City.

JOHN IHLDER,
Field Secretary of the National Housing Association.

TUBERCULOSIS

The anti-tuberculosis movement, apart from the strictly medical side of its problem is constantly, and to an increasing degree, presenting attractive opportunities to men for employment and social service. These openings are usually in the form of secretaryships of State or local anti-tuberculosis societies, positions as directors of exhibits, investigations or special campaigns and, in certain instances, as superintendents of institutions. The majority of institutional positions call for medical training, but in certain instances laymen have been selected and have proven successful.

The work of a State or local anti-tuberculosis organization is two-fold. Its first task is to secure and maintain public interest in

the problem of tuberculosis, in the facts regarding the disease and in the methods of its prevention. The other striking aspect of its work is securing adequate provision for the consumptives of a State or community through proper legislation and proper conduct of such facilities as may be provided. This provision includes as its main features hospitals for advanced cases, sanatoria for early cases, dispensaries, visiting nurses, open air schools for tuberculous and anæmic children, and in general any other provisions that will tend to decrease the incidence of the disease.

It is obvious that the work of a secretary of an organization undertaking to carry out such a programme is largely administrative in character. Such positions demand men possessing not so much a technical knowledge of the tuberculosis problem, as tact, sound judgment, energy, ability to deal with the various groups and personalities in a community and to secure the coöperation of other organizations and individuals interested in related fields.

The technical knowledge required may usually be rapidly acquired, preferably naturally, from experience in subordinate positions in active anti-tuberculosis societies.

The usual types of positions open are as follows:

1. Secretary of a State association. Duties: To organize local societies and to supervise the work of such societies throughout the State, to stimulate or to conduct general educational campaigns and to be responsible for the legislative programme of the State. The salaries range from $1,500 to $4,000.

2. Secretary of local associations in cities with a population of 200,000 or more. The work in the local positions is more intensive and consists in studying closely and formulating the needs of the community, in conducting educational campaigns and in stimulating public provision to meet the situation. Salaries range from $1,500 to $3,000.

3. Assistant secretary of State or local as-

sociation. Salaries range from $1,000 to $2,000.

4. Director of field campaign or of exhibits. The duties of such positions are to investigate particular local problems and to advise and aid the proper authorities as to their solution. The director of an exhibit usually has charge of a traveling exhibit constructed for the purpose of educating the public generally in the facts of tuberculosis. The salaries range from $1,200 to $2,500.

5. Superintendent of institution. There is some demand for laymen who have have administrative experience as superintendents of hospitals and sanatoria for tuberculosis. These positions are in the great majority of cases filled by physicians and it is only occasionally that a person of non-medical training is demanded. Such positions pay from $1,200 to $3,000, sometimes with maintenance, sometimes not.

6. Temporary positions, as financial secre-

taries, supervisors of Red Cross Seal campaigns, investigators of special problems, etc., are also constantly presenting themselves and are often difficult to fill. These positions being temporary usually pay from $100 to $300 per month.

These opportunities, constantly increasing in connection with the anti-tuberculosis campaign, afford openings to laymen as well as to young physicians who have the social point of view. While previous training will naturally increase the availability of an applicant, most of the positions indicated can be filled by men of proper education without special training in tuberculosis work. The ultimate success of the movement will doubtless depend in large measure upon the layman rather than the physician. This being the case, the man of broad educational equipment occupies a particularly advantageous position. Success in the tuberculosis field demands, as elsewhere, the qualifications of success in any business or

administrative field. The social point of view is a vital consideration, but is often acquired by recruits in the work in their early associations.

Opportunities of the character indicated are constantly presenting themselves and there is great difficulty in filling the positions with promising men. Secretaries of associations who achieve notable success are in demand for other positions and are, naturally, often called to important posts in other lines of social work. The development of the Red Cross Seal campaign with the consequent provision of financial resources for State and local societies has greatly increased the demand for good men in all parts of the country. Further information with regard to opportunities in this field may be obtained from the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 105 East 22d Street, New York City.

LIVINGSTON FARRAND,
Secretary, National Tuberculosis Association.

PUBLIC HEALTH AND SANITATION

There is to-day a great awakening on the part both of the public and of sanitary officials to the need of better work for public health and especially for the sanitation of water supplies, milk and other food supplies, ventilation, housing, street cleaning, mosquito control, public baths, lodging houses and the like.

The approach to service and employment in these various lines is most often and most naturally by the way of a board of health in philanthropic or social work, in sanitary surveys undertaken by cities, or else with sanitary engineers, civil engineers, sewer departments, city engineers, water boards, park departments, etc.

The pay is at first small, running from $40 a month (for beginners) upwards to $1,000 or $2,000 a year.

Young men desiring to undertake a work of this kind ought to provide themselves first

with a good high school training, and then with courses in general physics, general chemistry and general biology, such as may be taken in the lower years of many colleges and sometimes even in high schools. To these they should then add, if possible, courses in general bacteriology, sanitary science, public health, preventive medicine or public hygiene.

If preparation of this sort is out of the question, then actual service of some kind in connection with such boards as have been mentioned above, or in the offices of engineers like those referred to may be made the basis of the work.

A good handwriting, painstaking effort in every kind of work, accuracy and close attention to detail, coupled with ability to write clear and simple English and to describe minutely and clearly conditions of all sorts, will also be here, as everywhere, valuable assets.

At the outset beginners must be prepared to work hard for small pay, but those who are

able to acquit themselves usefully and to make and report observations accurately and fully may become sanitary inspectors in field work or laboratory aides in indoor work, both of which lines now offer extensive opportunities to young men who are intelligent, devoted to their work and their employers, who are painstaking and accurate in observing, recording and reporting facts and in describing conditions.

WILLIAM T. SEDGWICK,
Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston, Mass.

IMMIGRATION SECRETARY OF THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION

The business of the immigration secretary is to interpret North America to immigrant men, to help them to a knowledge of our language and our institutions, to protect them from grafters, to tell them what America may mean to them and to their children, to help them become adopted members of the family

and show how they can make the best use of the opportunities North America offers.

The young man who enters this field may find himself:

1. In a city where thousands of immigrants live and work. His business is to organize classes, clubs, socials, meetings, entertainments, etc., among the foreigners and to enlist workers from all the available forces in the town.

2. In an industrial plant, where the company wants work organized for their foreign-speaking employees.

3. In a group of two or three small industrial towns, not far removed from each other, where immigrants work and live. Here he will organize work for each town and supervise activities calculated to touch the life of the whole community.

4. In ports of embarkation and landing, where he will in many ways serve the immigrants. Ability to speak foreign languages is here essential.

There are also immigration State secretaries, who assist in the organization of these local activities.

The salaries paid men in these lines of work range from $1,000 to $3,000 a year.

The young man who has capacity to do this work can advance from a small industrial community to a large city, or become the organizer of this work on the State force, or be called into other nation-wide organizations which are doing work for immigrants in industries.

The special immigration secretary is a new development. About thirty men have been appointed in the last four years, and the number is being steadily increased.

For further information write Industrial Department, Immigration Section Y. M. C. A., 124 East 28th Street, New York City.

PETER ROBERTS,
Secretary, International Committee, Y. M. C. A.

SOCIAL LEGISLATION

There is a growing field of legislation in all of our States, dealing in its practical aspects with the public welfare and with the protection and care of the weaker members or classes in the community. Social legislation includes most of the legislation dealing with charitable institutions, education, public health, recreation, labor conditions, industrial accidents and social insurance; also the humane laws with respect to the treatment of criminals and the protection from cruelty to children and animals. In these very broad fields groups of citizens are organized to formulate public policies. Many societies and institutions organized for other and allied purposes, as well as those with these definite aims, make a specialty of legislative activity and much of their work consists of efforts to secure the enactment of specific legislative remedies based on investigation and studies which they conduct.

Organizations and committees are increasingly demanding the service of men as legislative secretaries and lobbyists.

A very few exceptionally trained men who ought to have the equivalent of a full law school course, as well as one or two years of post-graduate work in political science in a good university, will find openings for useful services and interesting careers as legislative draftsmen in the service of the special legislative reference and drafting bureaus, such as are now organized in Wisconsin, Pennsylvania, Texas, New York and other States, and with somewhat lesser qualifications, there are openings in the legislative reference bureaus which, as a rule, do not require legal training.

The work required is to organize the materials available, the results of investigations and sometimes to conduct investigations for the purpose of securing the materials necessary for drafting bills. The actual work of drafting is either done by special counsel or

by some drafting association, but if the secretary has also legal training and experience, he is sometimes called on to do the drafting himself. He is then expected to organize and conduct a campaign of publicity through the newspapers, and by circular and personal letters to enlist the coöperation of organizations, clubs, chambers of commerce, churches, etc., to interview members of the legislature, to prepare for legislative hearings, to be familiar with legislative procedure and political organization, to follow every stage of a bill and to understand the significance of every move made by the friends and enemies of the measure, both in and outside of the legislature.

Salaries vary from $1,200 to $4,000, with a very few positions open to those who have attained great skill and reputation for successful work at figures considerably in excess of the latter sum. In the legislative drafting and reference service, salaries do not conform to any definite scale. Men start in as low as

$1,000 or $1,200 in the reference divisions, and get as high as $5,000 or $6,000 in the higher grades of the drafting service.

A good training in economics and political science, a knowledge of the history of legislation, of the general principles of constitutional law and parliamentary procedure, a practical knowledge of political organization, especially party organization, of political platforms, the ability to write good English and take part in debate (including a fair facility at public speaking) and some familiarity with the history and methods of modern journalism, are all essential to success in this field.

The number of such positions open to men is not inconsiderable. Probably at least a dozen good opportunities each year present themselves in the six largest cities of the country, and the demand is increasing.

Advancement in salary for legislative secretaries is likely to be very rapid, depending entirely upon ability to produce results. The results are valuable to the parties interested, and

will be paid for liberally. There is always a possibility of transfer to the public service, to administrative offices often at good salaries and with some permanency of tenure, and the general advantages of the work are found in its constructive character, and development of qualities of resourcefulness, initiative, and generalship on the part of those who are its successful devotees.

For training in such work conference should be had with the executive heads of the political science departments of the larger universities, which are equipped for such work. Columbia University and the University of Wisconsin are among those that are specializing in this field. The New York School of Philanthropy offers some advantages. The directors of the legislative reference and drafting bureaus at the various State Capitols would, in many instances, be able to give good advice.

Samuel McCune Lindsay,
Professor of Social Legislation, Columbia University.

INVESTIGATION OF INDUSTRIAL CONDITIONS

If the investigation of industrial conditions is muck-raking the price of rakes ought to go up. Activity along this line was never so great as now. Industrial unrest is unusually acute and the desire of the public to know the causes of it was never so great. Consequently this is a day of investigations. Through the government of various States, through legislative commissions, through commissions appointed by Congress and through the Federal Bureaus of Labor the work of investigation is going on. Newspapers and periodicals are sending staff men into industrial centers to report upon the facts, and private organizations, such as social settlements and churches, are pursuing such investigations as their means will justify. The growing movement for social surveys of cities lays stress upon conditions of life and labor in the industrial sections.

Within two years, and mostly within one, four great industrial States, Wisconsin, New York, Ohio and Pennsylvania, have extended the power and scope of those State departments that concern themselves with labor and have required them to study and report more fully than in the past upon industrial conditions. There is a popular demand for investigations of conditions and of strikes, and such investigations have been carried on by the Industrial Commission in Wisconsin, the Bureau of Arbitration and Statistics in New York, by the special legislative commission in Ohio and by the United States Government at Bethlehem, Lawrence, and in the coal fields of West Virginia.

Special commissions have been appointed to investigate special subjects or existing governmental bodies have been charged with such investigations. Among such special reports are those by the Illinois Commission on Industrial Diseases, the New York State Factory Investigating Commission, the Federal Immigration

Commission and the United States Bureau of Labor on Women and Children in Industry and Conditions in the Steel industry. Finally, the most comprehensive investigation that has ever been undertaken by our government is about to be entered upon by the Commission on Industrial Relations, which was provided for by the last Congress with an appropriation of $100,000 for its first year's work.

There are two lines of work, differing and yet related, in this field. They may be termed statistical and journalistic: The statistician is an investigator who tells his story through tables of figures and charts. He must understand field work or he will not understand his figures. The field for statisticians is growing constantly and in direct proportion to the growth of the field of industrial research. The journalist's phase of investigation work ranges from the writing of simple reports explaining the statistician's tables to the writing of complete reports, magazine articles and books.

A high school boy of good intelligence can investigate industrial conditions with the help of an experienced director, but unless he reads very widely he will never succeed in understanding fully the subject with which he is dealing. The man who gives himself seriously to this work should have a college and university training, specializing in economics and sociology, legislation and statistics.

In State bureaus of labor there are coming to be more and more positions as special agents at salaries of about $1,200. These positions give an opportunity to learn the field. There are in line of promotion positions as experts and statisticians at salaries ranging from $1,500 to $3,000. Positions in allied fields requiring the services of men with this sort of experience which are likely to open from time to time will pay perhaps more than this. The opportunity for turning from this field into journalism is also very good. The best magazine writers on social and industrial topics at the present time are men who understand social

investigations and who have become very valuable to the periodicals with which they are connected because of this understanding and their ability to interpret the facts which they discover in terms that will convey to the reader a vivid and accurate impression.

Those who wish to enter this field might well communicate with Prof. J. R. Commons of the University of Wisconsin, or with any other professor of economics and sociology to whom they may wish to turn.

John A. Fitch,
of the Staff of the "Survey."

CHILD LABOR

The National Child Labor Committee and its affiliated State committees take up the problem of the working child with a view to securing laws in all States that shall eliminate the young child from industry, and shall regulate the hours and conditions of labor for those older children who may properly be employed.

The work of these organizations is not de-

voted exclusively to campaigns for better legislation. To secure good legislation requires, first, extensive and thorough investigation of the industries in which children are employed, systematic and lucid reports of the results of these investigations, agencies for publicity to bring to general notice the facts of child labor, and, following the enactment of laws, constant exercise of influence upon State and local officials and the public, to see that these laws are faithfully and impartially enforced. The committee also recognizes the constructive side of this whole problem—the importance of seeing that adequate school facilities are provided for all children taken out of industry, and that the school curriculum is so revised and adapted as to meet the needs of this industrial age.

The types of positions open to men may be thus summarized:

1. The staff of the National Child Labor Committee is small since the committee seeks to act in an advisory capacity, and to stimulate the organization of State and local committees

or the coördination of existing agencies without the development of elaborate machinery. In State organizations, positions of *executive secretary* offer salaries ranging from $1,200 to $2,500, according to the strength of the organization and the need of the field.

2. *Investigators* are needed to make original studies of conditions in mines, factories, mercantile establishments and other industries. This work is somewhat similar to the work of State and Federal investigators, and offers salaries ranging from $75 to $150 per month.

3. *Experts in Labor Legislation.* Drafting child labor bills, seeing them properly presented before legislative committees and watching them through the various stages until they become law, are allied activities calling for technical training, especially in the legal profession, although men who have made a careful study of labor legislation may successfully undertake this work without complete professional knowledge.

4. *State Factory Inspectors.* There is great need of development of higher standards of factory inspection by the departments in nearly all States. The weakest point in child labor reform is in the administration and enforcement of laws. Many States have departments of factory inspection employing a chief, with numerous deputy inspectors, and there is an increasing demand for civil service tests and technical knowledge to fit for these important branches of public service. Unfortunately, in many States, political considerations appear to control, and opportunities for men of high standing and thorough training are not numerous, but, apparently, such opportunities are steadily increasing.

Applicants for positions as secretaries of State committees, investigators, experts on child labor legislation and factory inspectors, should have some previous experience with industrial problems, although capable young men may do valuable work as investigators without previous experience. Those seeking

positions as secretaries of committees should have had experience in administrative work.

Owen R. Lovejoy,
General Secretary, National Child Labor Committee, New York.

MUNICIPAL RESEARCH WORK

Ten years from now Presidents will select their Cabinets not geographically, but from men trained in public service. Public service is now beginning to mean capacity for getting the right thing done in the right way, according to definite social standards and tested by the requirements of efficiency. Constructive social work demands not only a desire and a capacity for service, but a normal outlook, that is, "common sense," knowledge of method and pertinacity.

Bureaus of municipal research, of which there are sixteen established and several now under consideration, need engineers, accountants, investigators and secretaries who can apply "efficiency tests" and "scientific manage-

ment" to municipal problems. The New York Bureau receives daily requests for experts for public departments and private agencies. The problem is not to find opportunities, but where to find men competent to capitalize them.

So great have been the opportunities for men trained in municipal research methods, so widespread the demand for leadership in civic work (and it will increase tenfold during the next decade), that it has been found necessary to establish a Training School for Public Service in connection with the bureau, whose purpose is to "train young men of executive ability for the study and administration of public business; to meet a growing demand for students and administrators able to test the efficiency of present methods of municipal service and to introduce improved methods."

Four hundred and eighty-five different applications and inquiries have been received by it from 106 cities in twenty-five States. The applications came from men of every profes-

sion—lawyers, physicians, civil and sanitary engineers, college professors, school superintendents and teachers, settlement workers, ministers, accountants and men in business.

Twenty-four students are now in training, of whom eight are working without stipends and sixteen on stipends; six of the latter are being paid by other localities while retaining connection with the Training School and receiving its supervision.

The development of another branch of the bureau's work, *i.e.*, field surveys for out-of-town cities, promises to increase the demand for men trained in municipal research methods. To date the bureau has made surveys in twenty cities and twice this number are at present considering having surveys made by its staff. Fifteen bureaus of municipal research in cities outside of New York City, six supported by public funds and nine supported by private contributions, have drawn upon the trained men of the bureau for secretaries, directors, investigators, etc.

SALARIED POSITIONS

More definite idea of the kind of work done by men holding the positions enumerated above may be shown by a partial list of the positions filled by men who have served the bureau as staff members or members of the Training School:

City Clerk, Ossining; editorial staff "American City," secretary to special committee, trustees Neurological Institute; confidential assistant to Director of Public Safety, Philadelphia; with Boston Finance Commission; with school editor New York Globe; staff Civil Service Reform Association; deputy commissioner, Department of Public Works, Borough of Manhattan; manager Dairy Demonstration Company; agent State Board of Public Affairs; executive secretary Philadelphia Child Welfare League; director Ohio State School Survey; director Wisconsin School Inquiry, besides many men serving as directors or on staffs of bureaus of municipal research in Philadelphia, Hoboken, Baltimore, Westchester County, Cincinnati, Milwaukee, etc.

Salaries in these different types of positions range from $1,500 to $10,00 per annum.

Each man undertaking independent work should have a social point of view which will enable him to interpret city business in terms of city welfare and city progress. He should be familiar with every step in budget-making, be equipped to prepare and analyze reports of city officials; should be able to conduct independent investigations and surveys and should be trained in accuracy and the proper interpretation of statistics. The requirements of greatest importance for effective service in constructive social research are breadth of vision, freedom from prejudice, unselfish interest in social betterment and capacity for an unlimited amount of work. Two other important requisites are good "team work," which will enable him to work in harmony with citizens and officials, and a "publicity sense" which will make it easy for him to put his case clearly and convincingly before the public.

SALARIED POSITIONS

So widespread is the efficiency movement both as regards public service and commercial service that men trained in efficiency methods are at a premium. Civic organizations and governments, State and municipal, are increasingly willing to pay men according to the value of their services. A ten-thousand-dollar man will be able to earn $10,000 as quickly in this field as in any other high-grade professional work.

For more detailed information write to the directors of the Bureau of Municipal Research and the Training School for Public Service, 261 Broadway, New York City.

HENRY BRUÈRE,
Director Bureau of Municipal Research.

CITY SURVEYING

The survey as a tool for social advance is a comparatively recent invention. Back of it are two big facts—the fact of important changes in human relationships bringing with them new community needs and problems, and

the fact of scientific advances along lines (such as sanitation, sociology, public finance, etc.) that make some measure of solution of these problems possible. Samples of these changes are abundant. Many of them are bound up in the rapid growth of cities in the last few decades. Villages in agricultural districts, for instance, where everybody knew everybody else, where the pulpit had long been the chief or only influence in molding public opinion, where the air was uncontaminated by factory smokestacks, where the water supply was not complicated by sewage system or garbage dumps, and where sunlight and building space were plenty—these villages, in forty years, have leaped into the stature of cities with many of the more difficult problems of sanitation, health, housing, industrial relations, recreation, civic improvement and so on. Moreover, while these changes have been taking place, women in large numbers have been entering many kinds of industrial life, the services fur-

nished by the municipality have tended to broaden and increase, and the number of foreign immigrants to this country for a decade and a half has grown to a million each year. These are tremendous changes. They are only a few, however, of the many which have introduced new problems into community life calling for new scrutiny, analysis and constructive effort.

In the short time since the Pittsburgh survey, the idea has spread far, gripping civic and social leaders in many cities of the country. Leading citizens, city officials, chambers of commerce, boards of trade and other commercial organizations, some of which once looked with disfavor upon "investigations" and "exposures," have begun to see the business wisdom, at least, of using the survey as a means toward making the city a better place to live in and hence a better place to do business in. The scope of the survey includes problems in public health, sanitation, housing,

education, municipal administration, delinquency, dependency, recreation, industry and labor, civic improvement, etc.

Three general types of positions are open to men:

1. The directorships of surveys. The duties usually involve the making of quick preliminary studies with a view to selecting such lines of investigation as should be taken up more extensively later, the outlining of the scope, the material to be gathered and the method to be used in the individual investigations, working with investigators in interpreting their findings, rounding out their reports and planning publicity for the findings, and acting as go-between for investigators, local committees and others interested in or responsible for the undertaking. The salaries run from $1,500 to $3,500.

2. The investigator's work involves the gathering and the recording of data along lines mapped out by the survey director or by the investigator, in collaboration with the director

and the drafting of a report of findings. Salaries usually range from $1,000 to $1,500.

3. Statistician and graphic representator. The duties involved are the planning in advance and auditing afterward of statistical parts of the studies, and the mapping out of methods of representing the findings graphically. Salaries run from $1,200 to $2,500.

A college training or its equivalent, which included courses in economics and sociology, are deemed important as a starting point for investigators. Investigators in special and technical subjects would require academic training in the special subjects. In addition courses in statistics and graphic representation are necessary for workers in these lines. Workers without experience would be under supervision. Directors of surveys are usually recruited from the ranks of investigators who have made a number of different investigations, and have thus secured a general grasp of the social field.

Several rural surveys and investigations

have been carried on by religious organizations including the Presbyterian Department of Church and Country Life, the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America and the International Commiftee of the Y. M. C. A., with the coöperation of certain colleges, universities, normal schools and agricultural departments in State universities. The positions open, however, are few as yet. Field investigators are employed at a salary of $1,000 per year and traveling expenses. Students are used in summer vacations at a salary of $40 per month and expenses. This field of work, however, is only in part developed. Information regarding it may be had by correspondence with Dr. Warren H. Wilson, Presbyterian Department of Church and Country Life, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York.

It seems highly probable that the demand for city surveys will keep on increasing, and that many cities will do what practically amounts to continuous social and civic surveys. Opportunities for positions at present are

fairly numerous and will doubtless increase rapidly. Moreover, such work is related to so many phases of the social problem that it is good training for other positions in civic and social fields.

Correspondence may be had with the Department of Surveys and Exhibits, Russell Sage Foundation, New York City.

SHELBY M. HARRISON,
Director Department of Surveys and Exhibits.

SOCIAL WRITING

The national and the local bodies devoted to social, charitable and civic advance are realizing more and more that in order to win widespread support they must gain popular attention through press publicity. Almost half a hundred national social service societies besides a great many State and Municipal organizations maintain regular press services. But these often, if not usually, employ but part of the time of a capable worker who must in that case also perform other routine or execu-

tive services. Some of these societies employ a man for a few hours a day for this special service so that many newspaper and magazine writers perform social welfare work in addition to their regular duties. In some cases a society wishes to engage a person who can combine lecturing before local clubs and organizations with journalistic work. Others employ writers for special jobs such as the preparation of really attractive annual reports. More and more, too, the directors of the larger societies, if possible, are anxious to select for the executive director one who has as one qualification the ability to handle the publicity about the organization.

A number of the government bureaus and departments both in the States and at Washington afford opportunity for the writer versed on social service topics. Among these may be mentioned the labor departments, the Census Bureau and the various bureaus of education and of health. Much of this work is rather

along the line of research, but several maintain effective press services.

For those who, in addition to facility in writing, have capacity for investigation there is a growing demand for the conduct of community surveys which are usually followed by a definite attempt to popularize and interpret the results through both exhibits and the press.

Outside the direct field of social service the magazines and newspapers are each year appreciating more the man or woman who knows social conditions. A growing number of papers and journals maintain special social service pages and departments, but others also value as members of their staffs the man who knows social service work and workers. The better class magazines pay liberally for well-illustrated articles on topics in the field of social work and are using more of them each year. Most magazines, however, still pay better for fiction.

Compensation for the social service writer

ranges from $1,000 or $1,200 for the beginner up to $3,000 or $4,000 for regular positions and higher for the exceptional free lance. As time passes it will be increasingly recognized as desirable for one intending to undertake this kind of work to have had a good course in journalism such as that now offered at Columbia University, as well as a substantial grounding in economics, sociology and social economy. Practical experience in a newspaper or magazine office will be also of advantage. For one so qualified and with reasonable adaptability for supplemental executive work, there is always an opening.

JAMES P. HEATON,
of the staff of the "Survey."

SOCIAL EXHIBITS

This is a busy age. Information of individual and social value accumulates so rapidly—so rapidly, in fact, that the professional social worker (much less the average citizen) has difficulty in keeping abreast of the times.

The demand has therefore become insistent for new methods of spreading ideas that will enable new thoughts to be secured and new points to be made quickly, more quickly, if possible, than from the printed page. Moreover, recent developments in low cost amusement possibilities, together with the advance in the technique of writing interestingly, press the social and civic worker, who has something worth while to say, to articulate his message in as interesting a way as possible. The use of the exhibit for social advance has been one means used to meet this pressing need. In other words, the photograph, chart, diagram, stereopticon, moving picture, miniature, model, pageant and "life size" reproduction, and other devices, have been drafted into the cause of human welfare.

These exhibits have taken several forms, such as public health exhibitions, graphic municipal audits, child welfare exhibits, baby shows, general welfare exhibitions, graphic representation of survey findings, etc., and

offer good opportunity for using originality and imagination in campaigns on popular education for the common welfare.

At present there are practically no positions open to men, chiefly because of the common misunderstanding as to the vital importance of employing well-equipped people for this work. There is much ground for believing that national, State and local organizations will quickly learn that properly trained men, possessing both intellectual and social backgrounds, are necessary in this field.

Positions likely to be open to men are as follows:

1. Exhibition Director. The work involved is organizing and keeping in touch with local committees for gathering local facts, for carrying forward the preparation of exhibit material, for enlisting local interest in the purposes of the exhibition and its teachings, and for relating the exhibition to other local, State and national movements in the fields covered. In addition the director outlines the general ex-

hibition plan, the organization of material, and the educational campaign through newspapers and other mediums which center around the exhibition. Such work may be conducted for a national organization as a part of its general or special propaganda, or the director may be a "free lance," accepting commissions from national, State or local bodies for specified exhibitions, each probably requiring two to four months of active service.

This work requires organizing powers of a high order, knowledge of human nature, adaptability to the circumstances of time and place and ability in both writing and speaking. Real leadership in college activities should provide invaluable preparation.

2. Assistant Director. The need of properly equipped assistants will doubtless become increasingly evident. Together with lesser responsibilities and usually a definite division of work, the assistant will have a specialty, such as publicity, committee organization, exhibit preparation, fact-gathering or office adminis-

tration, in addition to more general duties supplementing the work of his chief.

3. Organizer of Exhibitions. Calls are coming for people who can go to a national or local headquarters, interpret and organize data, and express it graphically.

4. Local Director of Educational Campaigns. This work is gradually being developed so that various forms of traveling or movable exhibits, press work, printed matter and public addresses are made features of a correlated campaign of education of rare effectiveness when handled by men of imagination with adequate equipment.

While some of the "show man's" art may be used in the exhibition field, it is in no sense a "show man's job," but is becoming increasingly recognized as a dignified medium unequaled for efficient propaganda. The experience in these fields should open the way to executive positions requiring ability in organizing groups of people and conducting social welfare movements. In preparation for

this field academic work in social science may well be supplemented by courses in statistics. If practicable this should be followed by a first year's general course for social workers, with a second year of vocational work. For the present the New York School of Philanthropy, in coöperation with the Department of Surveys and Exhibits, Russell Sage Foundation, will provide an opportunity for such vocational training for students adequately prepared.

E. G. Routzahn,
Associate Director, Department of Surveys and Exhibits.

COMMERCIAL ORGANIZATIONS

There are few more attractive opportunities for civic and social work than those offered by the progressive commercial organization. The former commercial body or board of trade was usually nothing more than a board of trad—ition. The present progressive commercial organization is not simply a chamber

of commerce, it is a chamber of citizenship, and citizenship implies a recognition of the demands of every phase of commercial, industrial, municipal, civic and social welfare.

The commercial executive, therefore, if he is to be successful in his work, and if he is to inspire his organization with the broad ideals which are coming each year to be increasingly recognized as essential to the effective business men's organization, must have a thorough training not only in the fundamental principles of sound business conduct, but in the principles underlying civic and social progress. The general secretary of the commercial organization must have an intelligent understanding of the principles underlying public health, housing conditions, charitable administration, child welfare, educational processes, public recreation, social legislation, and the whole field of municipal development, which may be classed under the term "city planning," including traffic regulation, sewer, street and bridge building, paving, street cleaning, public parks

and playgrounds, construction and arrangement of public buildings and similar problems, as well as the general commercial and industrial activities which are the functions of every commercial body. The assistant or departmental secretaries in such an organization must in a degree be specialists along some one or several of these lines, and are charged with the responsibility for solving intensively these various problems. The personal qualifications necessary are those demanded by every other responsible position—an understanding of human nature, a reasonable degree of diplomacy, tact, energy and foresight.

While most men in these positions have up to this time received their training through practical experience, the demand for special training is indicated by the opening, during the past three months, of two schools for training commercial and civic executives. The general university courses which in my opinion would fit a man for work in this field are economics, sociology and psychology.

There are perhaps four or five thousand civic and commercial organizations in this country. Probably less than three hundred men can claim a training particularly fitting them for positions as executives of these organizations. The demand, therefore, is unlimited and there are continually scores of positions for trained men in this field which it is impossible to fill. I have known organizations to look for a year or more for men whose qualifications would fit them even for subordinate positions which were open. Furthermore, a man who has proven his worth in the organization of a small community is in demand for positions in large communities.

Salaries of commercial executives run from $1,200 or $1,500 in the smaller towns to $8,000 or $10,000 in the larger cities. Many positions now pay $5,000 or $6,000 and a few as high as $12,000 or $15,000.

The executives of the commercial organizations of any of the larger cities would, I am

sure, be glad to correspond with men who are considering this field.

HOWARD STRONG,
Secretary Minneapolis Civic and Commerce Association.

SUPPLEMENT II

OPPORTUNITIES FOR TRAINING IN SOCIAL WORK

OPPORTUNITIES FOR TRAINING IN SOCIAL WORK

A. SCHOOLS OF PHILANTHROPY

There are five regular training schools for social and civic work; The School of Philanthropy of New York City; The Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy; the Boston School for Social Workers; the Pennsylvania School for Social Service and the School of Social Economy of St. Louis.

The following official account of the New York School of Philanthropy is a representative description of the purposes, requirements, courses, etc., of the whole group.

The New York School of Philanthropy, established in 1898 and endowed by the late John S. Kennedy of New York, is primarily a professional training school of graduate rank for civic and social work. It is conducted by the Charity Organization Society of New York

City under the direction of Edward T. Devine, and is affiliated with Columbia University.

CURRICULUM

The regular training course occupies two academic years. All the classroom work of the first year is prescribed, but there is opportunity for choice in Field Work. The work of the second year is vocational and elective. It is so planned as to facilitate the transition from professional study to actual service. Training by participation in the actual process of research, administration or case work, is the most conspicuous feature of this half of the curriculum.

At the beginning of the second year, each student, if he has not already done so, selects his particular department of social work from among the several fields in which expert direction and valuable training are available. Opportunity for practical work in that field is arranged in connection with the appropriate institution or society which best represents it and in which there are favorable conditions

for training. The responsibility for supervision of this specialized field work remains with the staff of the School and is entrusted to the instructor who is most familiar from practical experience with the kind of work which the student is doing, or, if no member of the staff has such familiarity, then to a competent instructor whose services are secured for the purpose.

COURSES

FIRST YEAR

1. Social Work. (Two hours) Mr. Devine.
2. Individuals and Families. (Four hours) Mr. Lee and Mr. Thurston.
3. Modern Industrial Conditions. (Two hours)
   a. Standards and Problems. First Term: Miss Van Kleeck.
   b. Workers and the Law. Second Term: Mr. Lindsay.
4. Statistics in Social Work. (Two hours) Miss Claghorn.
5. Types of Social Work. (Three hours) Various lecturers.
6. Hygiene and Preventable Disease. (One hour) Dr. Miller.
7. Field Work. (Twelve hours) Mrs. Worthington.

8. Excursions, with Conferences. Mrs. Worthington.

SECOND YEAR

11. Social Work. (Two hours) Mr. Devine.

12 A. Enforcement of Social Legislation. Mr. Lindsay.

12 B. Administration of Social Agencies. Mr. Cleveland.

(Two hours: 12 A First Term; 12 B Second Term)

13. Seminar, with Thesis (Two hours) and Field Work (Twenty hours) in one of the following subjects:

a. Family Rehabilitation. Mr. Lee.

b. Child Welfare. Mr. Thurston.

c. Recreation. Mr. Johnson.

d. Medical Social Service. Dr. Miller.

e. Social Work of Churches. Mr. White.

f. Settlements and Social Centers. Mrs. Simkhovitch.

g. Delinquency and Prison Reform. Mr. Lewis.

h. Public Service. Mr. Cleveland.

(Other subjects will be provided for on application of qualified second-year students.)

REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION

In grade and character the instruction in the regular two-year course is comparable to that in other graduate professional schools. Students are expected to have the mental ma-

turity and the general education which may be assumed of college graduates. A bachelor's degree is not required for admission, since it is recognized that there are other ways of attaining mental maturity and securing a good general education than by following a college course; but all candidates for admission, either to the full course, or as regular students [1] to any of the First Year courses, are required to present evidence of adequate preparation for serious professional study.

A knowledge of certain subjects is essential in order to do the work of the School satisfactorily and profitably but what is especially desired is a trained and receptive intelligence, a capacity to use the mind. Previous experience in social work is not required. Satisfactory credentials are expected as to character, health, and earnestness of purpose. Persons under twenty-one years of age, or over thirty-five, are admitted only for exceptional reasons.

The subjects which are of primary impor-

[1] Auditors are admitted only to Courses 5 and 6.

tance as a foundation for the course are History, Civics, and Economics.

A knowledge of elementary physiology, biology, and psychology is very desirable, as giving a rational, scientific point of view for the consideration of such subjects as are discussed in the curriculum of the School; and a knowledge of some of the phenomena with which sociology deals is also advantageous, particularly an understanding of the family as a social institution and of the conditions favorable to its stability and to the development of a sense of family responsibility.

Every candidate for admission to the regular course is required to pass an entrance examination.

FEES AND EXPENSES

The tuition fee for the two years' course is $150, payable in three installments of $50 each, in October and February of the first year of residence, and in October of the second year. For single courses of the first year the tuition is at the rate of $7.50 per hour per term.

A matriculation fee of five dollars is required at the time of registration of all persons who enroll as regular students, whether for full work or for a single course.

TRAINING FOR MEDICAL SOCIAL SERVICE

To meet the pressing demand for educated women who have a practical working knowledge of disease and of nursing and medical procedure, together with training for social work, a course in Medical Social Service has been arranged under the joint auspices of the Bellevue Training School for Nurses and the School, leading to a diploma from both schools. It comprises two years in the Training School for Nurses, during which time students are kept in touch with social work through occasional lectures and conferences provided by The School of Philanthropy, and a third year in The School of Philanthropy, during which students are kept in touch with medical and sanitary service through lectures, conferences, and practical field work.

Those who wish to combine one year in the

Training School of Nurses with one year in The School of Philanthropy are permitted to do so, on satisfying the conditions for admission. This shorter course will prepare specifically for certain kinds of social work in which familiarity with nursing procedure is desirable, but students who complete it receive, instead of diplomas, a certificate indicating what courses they have actually taken, and they do not become eligible for the State Board Examinations for registration for the practice of nursing.

INSTITUTES

In 1914 six Institutes for social workers, each one month in duration, have been held in the following departments:

Play and Recreation, Mr. Johnson
Family Rehabilitation, Mr. Lee
Probation and Parole of Juveniles, Mr. Thurston
Correctional Institutions, Mr. Lewis
Neighborhood Work, Mrs. Simkhovitch
Parish Work, Mr. White.

For the brief period of the Institute a very intensive programme is provided, consisting

of a judicious combination of lectures, class discussions and reports, excursions, field work, and personal consultation with instructors and others.

Admission is by invitation in all instances, and the charge for registration and tuition is nominal.[2] Every attempt is made to secure a congenial and homogeneous group in each Institute, and as a rule invitations are limited to those actually engaged in the particular field of work to which the Institute is devoted. Each group is limited in number and a wide territorial distribution is desired.

No entrance examination is required, nor does the work of the Institute count towards the diploma of the School.

SPECIAL COURSES

For the social workers of New York City and its vicinity, and for persons who wish to obtain a general view of social work, but are not in position to take the full two-year course, The New York School of Philanthropy offers

[2] A registration fee of $10; no fee for tuition.

certain special courses and consultation privileges, and opens certain of the courses in its regular two-year curriculum, as follows:

Course 5. Types of Social Work. Various Lecturers. Monday, Tuesday, Thursday at 12:10 throughout the year, beginning October 1, 1914. Fee $10.00 per term; single lectures, fifty cents.

Course 6. Hygiene and Preventable Disease. James Alexander Miller. Thursday at 9:10 throughout the year, beginning October 1, 1914. Fee $10.00 for the year.

Sp. 1. Play and Recreation. George Ellsworth Johnson. Thirty sessions of two hours each, beginning October 3, 1914. Saturday morning at 10:10. Fee $10.00 per term of fifteen sessions.

Sp. 2. Principles and Methods of Report-Making. Kate Holladay Claghorn. Fifteen sessions of one hour each, beginning October 5, 1914. Monday afternoon at 5:00, first semester. Fee $5.00.

Sp. 3. Social Surveys. Kate Holladay Claghorn. Fifteen sessions of one hour each, beginning February 8, 1915. Monday afternoon at 5:00, second semester. Fee $5.00.

Sp. 4. Introduction to Social Work. Porter R. Lee. Fifteen sessions of one hour each, beginning October 5, 1914. Monday afternoon at 4:00, first semester. Fee $5.00.

Sp. 5. Work with Children. Henry W. Thurston. Fifteen sessions of two hours each, beginning Febru-

ary 8, 1915. Monday afternoon at 4:00, second semester. Fee $10.00.

Sp. 6. Work with Delinquents. Orlando F. Lewis. Fifteen sessions of two hours each, beginning October 23, Friday afternoon at 4:00 or Friday evening at 8:00. Fee $10.00.

Sp. 7. Conferences for Neighborhood Workers. Mary Kingsbury Simkhovitch. Fifteen sessions of two hours each, beginning November 18, 1914. Wednesday morning at 10:10. Fee $10.00.

Sp. 8. The Church and Social Work. Gaylord S. White. Fifteen sessions of two hours each, beginning February 9, 1915. Tuesday morning at 10:10, second semester. Fee $10.00.

The Kennedy Lectures: Lecturer and dates to be announced. No fee.

Consultation Service: Individual arrangements. Fee $2.00 per hour.

The Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, under the direction of Graham Taylor, is located at 116 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Ill. This school offers a lecture course on Public Health and Housing which may also be taken by correspondence.

The Boston School for Social Workers is maintained by Simmons College and Harvard University. It is located at 18 Somerset Street

and is under the direction of Jeffrey R. Brackett. A limited number of persons with acceptable preparation in social work may be admitted to portions of the instruction in the special subjects given in the second year, such as Organizing Charity; Work with Children; Medical Social Service, Neighborhood and Community Work.

The St. Louis School of Social Economy, situated at 19th and Locust Streets is now affiliated with Washington University. Through the coöperation of the Russell Sage Foundation, this school has a Department of Research. Investigations have been made on Child Life, Industrial Accidents, Occupational Diseases, Maternity Homes and Adoptions, Prenatal Work, Problem of Outdoor Relief in Missouri, the Blind Mendicant, etc.

The Pennsylvania School for Social Service, under the direction of Wm. O. Easton, is located at 419 Fifteenth Street, Philadelphia, Pa.

All these training schools, though aiming primarily to equip students for professional work, offer special courses for the volunteer who wishes technical training but cannot take the full curriculum.

B. UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES

In a very real sense nearly all universities and colleges offer training, direct or indirect, for social work. The leading institutions of learning have either special departments or special courses for students planning a social service career, or more generally for those seeking to understand the social forces of the day.

Harvard University, for example, has a department of Social Ethics, offering a series of courses in Social Problems, including Immigration, Housing, Crime, Rural Problems, Child Problems, and the Liquor Question. Many graduates of this department directly enter the broad field of social service.

The School of Political Science of Columbia

University is primarily intended for graduate students seeking to specialize in Economics and Social Science. It also has special seminars in Social Problems, etc.

The Department of Economics of the University of California offers such courses as Modern Industrialism, Labor Problems and Labor Legislation, Care of Dependents, Control of Poverty, Crime as a Social Problem, The Needy Family, The Dependent Child, etc. Besides this regular academic department, the University provides a post-graduate course for professional social work including courses in field work wherein students give three days per week of definite volunteer service.

Certain colleges offer courses of special interest. For example Cornell University provides a "Course in Citizenship" which aims to make every citizen sense his relation to his neighborhood, city and state in the various problems of immigration, child labor, taxation, etc.

Other instances could be cited from the cur-

ricula of the leading institutions of learning illustrating the increasing emphasis, during the last decade, on the science of social service.

MAIDA HERMAN

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